

**THE INFLUENCE OF THE MOTHER'S
PARENTING STYLES OF WARMTH AND CONTROL
ON HER PRESCHOOLER'S
EMOTIONAL LANGUAGE AND EMOTIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

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ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this longitudinal research was to explore the role of Baumrind's (1978) parenting styles of warmth and control (PSR) in preschoolers' emotional language and the embedding of that language, from the perspective of the theories on the social construction of emotions (Harré, 1986; Vygotsky, 1994). PSR warmth and control together are authoritative with positive effects while the lack of either warmth or control is non-authoritative with negative effects. PSR (observation) was measured from coding of videotaped interaction of mother-child dyads during difficult tasks. PSR (upbringing) was obtained from a questionnaire on the mother's recollections of the warmth and control during her childhood. PSR (beliefs) was obtained from a questionnaire of the mother's beliefs in parenting. Emotional language was obtained from audiotapes of three narratives of the preschoolers' past emotional experiences elicited by their mothers. Emotional language was coded for positivity, uniqueness and amount. The secondary purpose of this research was to explore the role of PSR (upbringing) and PSR (beliefs) on preschoolers' emotional behaviour and to replicate the influence of PSR (observation) on that behaviour. Emotional behaviour was measured from coding of the videotaped interaction of mother-child dyads. The research was repeated one year later. There were two age groups of mother-child dyads: younger (30 months, n=39) and older (48 months, n=37). This research mainly replicated previous research for the mothers' observed PSR on the younger groups' emotional behaviour (positivity) but the effect was less for the older group. As predicted the mothers' observed PSR had a strong influence over their preschoolers' emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). The mothers' remembered PSR from upbringing had a strong influence over their preschoolers' emotional behaviour and language. The mothers' beliefs in PSR had a moderate influence on their preschoolers' emotional behaviour and language. All these influences were concurrent and longitudinal. When contrary to the hypotheses for behaviour (positivity) and language (positivity and uniqueness), upbringing PSR impacted on non-authoritative observed PSR to have positive effects. When contrary to the hypotheses for behaviour (positivity) and language (uniqueness and amount), beliefs in PSR impacted on non-authoritative observed PSR to have positive effects. The influence of the mothers' PSR from upbringing and beliefs on their

influence of the mothers' observed, upbringing and beliefs in PSR on their preschoolers' emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount) has not featured in previous research nor has it been acknowledged in the parenting style literature. General implications are outlined and suggestions are discussed for parenting education re beliefs and for a positive acceptance of their own parental upbringing. Reappraisal of PSR includes the possible addition of 'autonomy' and for 'warmth' to have more depth as in 'emotion-coaching' (Gottman, Katz & Hooven, 1996). Suggestions are proffered for future research.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotional language and emotional behaviour are an important correlate of mental health and adjustment. Success in later life by disadvantaged children has been attributed to their social ability to 'get on' with people as well as their flexibility, determination and persistence (Felsman & Vaillant, 1987). These children's social ability was judged on their coping capacity and competence which included ability to handle frustrations and control emotions. In contrast, the emotional condition of American children deteriorated from 1976 to 1989 with no obvious underlying cause (Achenbach & Howell, 1993). There were increases in children's aggression, attention problems, delinquency, social withdrawal and depression as well as decreases in their competence.

The ability to express one's feelings verbally and to elicit information from others is necessary for the initiation and maintenance of interpersonal relationships (Mufson, Moreau, Weissman, & Klerman, 1993). The lack of these traits in adolescence may lead to low self-esteem, eating disorders, social withdrawal and depression. Three key factors of emotional maladjustment were found in the self-esteem and eating disorders in adolescent girls (Leon, Fulkerson, Perry & Cudeck, 1993). Two of these pertained to emotional regulation: the inability to correctly identify their own emotional arousal and negative emotionality. Problems in initiating and negotiating relationships in new schools have caused adolescent depression (Mufson et al.). These problems were preceded by interpersonal deficits in communication about emotions.

It is not only adolescents who are affected by depression. Juveniles who are diagnosed as clinically depressed are at an increased risk of subsequent episodes of depression (Kovacs & Bastiaens, 1995). They stated that children of school-age have limited skills in abstract thinking, interpersonal perspective-taking and monitoring their internal distress. For young adolescents, emotional distress has been a key factor in substance use (Tschann, Adler, Irwin, Millstein, Turner & Kegeles, 1994). Their elevated level of negative emotion was followed by the drug use within the year.

In summary, a lack of emotional skills has led to schoolage and adolescent depression in children as well as adolescent eating disorders and substance use. On the positive side,

disadvantaged children have succeeded in later life mainly because of their competence in handling frustrations and controlling emotions. From this, it can be seen that emotional language and emotional behaviour are important correlates of mental health and adjustment.

Parents have a large role in defining the quality of their children's emotional development. As Brazelton (1992, p.20) stated:

‘Almost all parents understand instinctively that an infant's development will depend, in some degree, on whether their relationship with the child is supportive, loving and stimulating’.

For later success at school, a child needs to develop confidence, curiosity, persistence and a sense of responsibility, according to Brazelton. He states that the capacity to understand the feelings of others and to cooperate with them is of equal importance. Brazelton lists four conditions necessary for young children, including good physical health and time for the development of an intimate relationship. The other two conditions are responsive caregiving with an understanding of children's development and a safe, supportive environment for parents and children (Brazelton). The role of parents is to ensure that all these conditions are met.

Children's feelings have been ignored when there have been negative feelings and competition between the parents (Wilson & Gottman, 1995). In contrast, parents who were aware of their own sadness and coached their children in the handling of anger had children who were more positive and less stressed (Hooven, Gottman & Katz, 1995). These authors stated that these emotionally adept parents also had a positive impact on their children's academic achievement and health over the three years of the study. Furthermore, shy preschoolers who were socially competent were more likely than average to overcome their inhibitions within six years (Asendorpf, 1994). These children developed successful coping strategies when faced with difficult social situations.

Parents who neglect, reject or abuse their children are prejudicing their emotional development. Neglected youngsters were more anxious, inattentive and apathetic at school as well as being aggressive and withdrawn in social situations (Brazelton, 1992). Violent crime in early adulthood has been associated with early childhood rejection (Raine, Brennan &

Mednick, 1994). A history of family violence and abuse is closely associated with juvenile delinquency (Brazelton, 1992). Children who have been abused and neglected in childhood have higher rates than average of adult criminality and arrests for violent offenses (Widom, 1989). Abuse of a more psychological kind has had negative results as well. Early childhood spent in distracted, disorganised and chaotic households was associated with adolescent drug use (Brazelton, 1992).

In recognition of the fact that some parents need help to fulfill their role, there are effective parent training programmes that promote the 'key protective factors of family management and bonding' (Hawkins & Catalano, 1992, p.84). The focus on primary prevention teaches skills in communication within the family, involvement with school, and resisting antisocial influences as well as giving clear guidelines against parental alcohol and other drug use. These programmes emphasise the parental role in the development of their children.

In summary, parenting should be responsive, supportive and understanding in children's emotional development. Emotional coaching by parents has a positive impact on children over time. In contrast, neglect, rejection and abuse by parents leads to aggression, delinquency, drug abuse and violent crime in their children. Parent training programmes are available to counter the risk factors that lead to negative outcomes. It can be seen that parents can either contribute to or reduce the quality of emotional development.

The ability to accurately label one's own and others' emotions is a basic skill required in order to regulate emotion and exhibit social skill, and is a key element of training in emotional development. This could be called emotional competence or even emotional intelligence. Salovey and Mayer (1994, p.313) listed 'the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in self and in other people' as a primary domain of emotional intelligence. This included recognition, identification and labelling of emotion. This emphasises the importance of accuracy in the labelling of emotions as well as emotional language.

Emotional competence, for Saarni (1993), had eleven components and skills. Saarni stated that the first six were usually developed in adults, viz.:

‘(1). awareness of one’s emotional state, (2) ability to discern others’ emotions, (3) ability to use the vocabulary of emotion and expression terms, (4) capacity for empathic involvement in others’ emotional experiences, (5) ability to realise that inner emotional state need not correspond to outer expression, and (6) awareness of cultural display rules.’ (Saarni, 1990, pp.442-443).

Note that the third emotional competence skill referred to the ability to label one’s own and others’ emotions.

Further to the emotional development of the child, Solomon, Watson, Delucchi, Schaps and Battistich (1988) were involved in a successful child development project designed to enhance children’s prosocial behaviour in the classroom. Lasting five years from kindergarten onwards, this emphasised teacher-student relationships by integrating prosocial components into the existing school curriculum. These included the promotion of social understanding especially in the understanding and sensitivity of relationships. Another emphasised prosocial values with the teacher approving appropriate behaviour. Discussions of both of these components would lead to the labelling of emotions. This would help the children whose emotional skills were underdeveloped at home.

There are programmes for older children, too. ‘The W. T. Grant Consortium on the School-based Promotion of Social Competence’ has drug and alcohol prevention information aimed at developing emotional, cognitive and behavioural skills (Hawkins & Catalano, 1992). The emotional skills include ‘identifying and labelling feelings, expressing feelings, assessing the intensity of feelings, managing feelings, delaying gratification, controlling impulses and reducing stress’ (Hawkins et al., 1992, p.136). This programme emphasises social competence and skills such as the identification and labelling of emotions.

In summary, the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in self and others is a main component of emotional intelligence. The ability to label one’s own and others’ emotions is an important emotional competence skill. A development programme for young children based in schools emphasised discussion of relationships and behaviour that would lead to the labelling of emotions. Another school programme for drug and alcohol prevention teaches emotional skills including identifying and labelling feelings. It can be seen that the ability to identify and label emotions is an important skill.

Preschool children are beginning to learn the rudiments of emotional regulation so this is an important time to observe their emotional development. In introducing the report for Heart Start, a programme to enhance the emotional foundations for school readiness, Brazelton (1992, p.v.) stated that it:

‘... shows how a child’s expectations and attitudes are formed in the very first months and years of life, and why encouragement and stimulation are the second most important gifts that parents can provide their children. Love comes first. But parents also need to understand how their actions can help generate the confidence, the curiosity, the pleasure in learning and the understanding of limits that will make their children expect to succeed and help them to do so.’

This emphasises the importance of love and warmth in helping the child to learn emotional regulation.

There are lessons to be learnt in emotional regulation from warmth or the lack of it during development. A child who is treated in a loving and positive way will be secure and behave positively (Brazelton, 1992). In contrast, a child who is dealt with harshly and impatiently will learn that her or his needs and feelings are not important. Such a preschooler may develop negative emotional feelings and behaviour.

Brazelton (1992) claims that severe emotional stress can physically damage the brain’s “learning centres” where certain kinds of learning should occur by the age of three. By four years old, children experience their most fundamental lessons, as stated by Brazelton (1992, p.13):

‘They are learning to focus, to be intimate, to control their behaviour, to be imaginative, to separate reality from fantasy, to have positive self-esteem and to feel deeply connected to the adults in their lives. A child who cannot focus his attention, who is suspicious rather than trusting, sad or angry rather than optimistic, destructive rather than respectful and one who is overcome with anxiety, preoccupied with frightening fantasy and feels generally unhappy about himself - such a child has little opportunity at all, let alone equal opportunity to claim the possibilities of the world as his own’.

Preschoolers such as these would develop negative emotional feelings and behaviour.

Negative emotional feelings and behaviour have led to grave outcomes for the child in the past. The antisocial traits in five-year-old boys, regardless of family circumstances, have led to adolescent deviancy, delinquency and drug use (Patterson, 1993). Early childhood

aggression has been found to be a significant predictor of adolescent maladjustment (Lerner, Hertzog, Hooker, Hassibi & Thomas, 1988). This emphasises the importance of the prevention or amelioration of antisocial traits and aggression by teaching preschoolers emotional competence.

In summary, programmes for the enhancement of preschoolers' emotional regulation emphasise the importance of warmth. Love and warmth can have a positive outcome for the child, but lack of it leads to a negative outcome. Severe stress has been said to damage a child's brain thus inhibiting learning. Preschoolers learn fundamental skills by the age of four years. Negative emotional feelings and behaviour learnt by preschoolers have led to negative outcomes for adolescents. This emphasises the importance of positive emotional regulation as well as the importance of the study of preschool children.

The following literature review is presented in three sections: the social construction of emotions, preschoolers' emotional language and parenting styles of warmth and control.

The Social Construction of Emotions

There are three main approaches to the contemporary research on the socialisation of emotion, including the biological-evolutionary view, the individual differences due to family expressiveness, and the social construction of emotion (Ratner & Stettner, 1991). The first view was originally Darwinian but Ratner and Stettner state that Ekman's (1972) neuro-cultural theory 'most directly inspired socialisation studies'. In Ekman's theory, cultural exposure can supersede the crucial links built-in between emotional states and expressive behaviours in the nervous system (Ratner & Stettner, 1991). The second approach was led by Jones (1950) who hypothesised that overt emotional demonstrations had an inverse association with physiological reactions to events that were affect-eliciting (Ratner & Stettner, 1991). Children who were high externalisers and had low internal reactivity had tolerant parents. In comparison, restrictive parents had children who were high internalisers with low expressiveness combined with high physiological activity.

The third approach is the social construction of emotion where emotion is placed at the centre of communication. Ratner and Stettner (1991) note that interaction with others has been central to learning but they aver that emotion must be taken into consideration. They stated that:

‘... emotion adds to the socialisation of cognition that which is social and cognition adds to the socialisation of emotion that which is representational’ (Ratner & Stettner, 1991, p.3).

Thus, interaction processes should be examined for emotion as well as for cognitive development.

Two theories of emotions are reviewed: Harré’s (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) theory of the social construction of emotions and Vygotsky’s (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interaction theory of emotions.

Harré’s Theory of the Social Construction of Emotions

A social construction theorist, Harré (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) posited that emotions are part of a culture and of its language. Emotions are socially constructed within the culture or within a particular group integral within it. These emotions do not just happen, they are strategic, as they play roles in actions that occur in actual situations. Affect and thought are intertwined as emotions are defined by cognition in social encounters.

Harré (1986, p.5) averred that the main contribution to emotions comes from:

‘... the local social world, by way of its linguistic practices and the moral judgements in the course of which the emotional quality of encounters is defined. Turning our attention away from the physiological states of individuals to the unfolding of social practices opens up the possibility that many emotions can exist only in the reciprocal exchanges of a social encounter.’

Thus, the local language and the local moral order are the two social matters that have a marked impact on the personal experience of emotion.

Harré (1986, p.10) claimed that emotions are culturally diverse and cited five categories in support of this: (1) ‘the inversion of the standard of valuation’, for example:

bravery and fear. Fear is condemned in Western culture but not in the Ifaluk culture where those who are submissive and passive are commended; (2) 'the encouragement by one culture of what is suppressed by another'. To the Japanese, 'amae' is an agreeable emotional state of sweet dependence. To most Europeans 'amae' is an infantile indulgence; (3) the emphasis in one culture of that which is more trivial in another. To see foolish or rude behaviour is an uncomfortable feeling for most people. This is felt so acutely by the Spaniards that it is almost unbearable and is treated as a distinct emotion 'vergüenza ajena'; (4) the change of emotions over time in a culture. In the seventeenth century, 'accidie' was a failure in religious duty, or laziness or procrastination in that duty; and (5) there are 'quasi-emotions' that are closely related to the physical conditions of life. 'Cosiness' can be a feeling yet can be used to describe a particular occasion or environment. In these five categories, emotions are identified as being culturally diverse (Harre, 1986, p.10).

In Harre's (1986) theory, the identification of emotion is maintained, changed and taught by adults in the culture or a particular group within it. Therefore, the emotional development of young children would depend on close adults. In this way, children would absorb emotions from close adults (usually mothers) who would have the most interaction with them. As an example, the mother labels emotions experienced by the child, herself, and others, as well as giving causes for them, when speaking to the child. From everyday conversations, the child gradually learns to recognise these emotions, and label them. In time, the child can recognise and talk about the causes of these emotions. Harre averred that it is in this way that the emotional expressions of the particular group within the culture that the mother belongs to are maintained, changed and taught.

Later, on the theme of adult-child relationship, Harre (1993, p.6) stated that:

'... to become a person the infant's native endowments [conscious awareness, agentive powers and recollection] must be synthesised into a coherent and unified structure. It is the great achievement of Vygotsky to have realised that this synthesis (prefigured in the writings of Kant) comes about by the acquisition of both symbolic and practical skills in symbiosis with more competent members of the infant's immediate circle.'

Furthermore, he stated that there would be a continuation of the symbiosis until the age of four years.

Harré (1993) asserted that the major instrument through which social behaviour is created and maintained is language. Harré (Harré & Gillett, 1994) advocated treating emotional feelings and displays as being psychologically equivalent to statements. Harré (1986) advocated examining language in the narrative form to investigate emotions. The labels of emotion are socially constructed within the culture, or a particular group within it, and are transmitted from adults to children. Emotions are semantically defined in that unease is felt and then rhetoric found to explain it. In this way, the cultural framework constructs the meaning of the emotion. Children learn at their mothers' knees the emotional language of their culture.

The methodology Harré (1986) advocated for investigating emotions in a culture included looking at the language, the moral order or norms and the social functions (acts) of the emotion displays and emotion talk. He advised examination of the narrative form of these.

Recent research on children's emotional language in narratives has supported Harré's (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) theory of the social construction of emotions in that the emotional norms of the mothers' culture were passed on to their children. The longitudinal effect of mother's emotional language on her child's emotional language has been illustrated in at least four studies, i.e., Miller and Sperry (1987), Dunn, Bretherton and Munn (1987), Kuebli, Butler and Fivush (1995) and Haden, Haine and Fivush (1997). In two other longitudinal studies, mothers who spoke differently about evaluations that contained emotion words had children who differed in a similar way, i.e., Fivush (1991) and McCabe and Peterson (1991). Also, Free, Alechina and Zahn-Waxler (1996) have shown that mothers with differing mental states had differing degrees of accuracy in the recognition of emotional expressions. These differences were paralleled in the accuracy of their children's recognition of emotional expressions in a concurrent study of narratives.

In the present longitudinal research, narratives between mother and child were examined for their emotional language content. The mothers differed in the degree of warmth and control they displayed in their parenting style dimensions. Each parenting style dimension characterises a particular group within the culture which is in accordance with

Harré's (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) theory of the social construction of emotions (Harré, 1994, personal communication).

Vygotsky's Social Interaction Theory of Emotions

Vygotsky (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) was a social interaction theorist who advocated examining language to investigate emotions. He viewed the 'sign system' of language as a social and cultural phenomenon that mediated social and psychological processes. Vygotsky stated that communication was the first and foremost function of speech. Social interaction, expression and understanding were all engendered by speech and language.

According to Vygotsky (1987), language and affect must be studied to understand thought as every thought has affect behind it. The first half of Vygotsky's unfinished treatise on emotions was written shortly before his death. He stated that (1987, p.50):

'By isolating thinking from affect at the outset, we effectively cut ourselves off from any potential for a causal explanation of thinking. A deterministic analysis of thinking presupposes that we identify its motive force, that we identify the needs, interests, incentives and tendencies that direct the movement of thought in one direction or another. In much the same way, when thinking is isolated from affect, investigating its influences on the affective or purposive aspect of mental life is effectively precluded.'

In this Vygotsky was advocating that cognition and emotion should be studied together.

In Vygotsky's (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interactionist theory, children learn from interaction and dialogue with a more capable person or persons. They learn through this interpersonal dialogue with adults if the speech is on a level higher than the children's present level. This speech, with a more competent partner, is then absorbed if motivated to an intrapersonal level. The child becomes more independent as the speech is internalised into private speech.

The internalisation of culturally produced sign systems causes a behavioural transformation (Vygotsky, 1978). A bridge is then formed between the early and later forms of individual development. To Vygotsky (1994, p.352):

‘... man is a social creature, that without social interaction he can never develop in himself any of the attributes and characteristics which have developed as a result of the methodical evolution of all humankind.’

This is Vygotsky’s general law for the development of higher functions (Wertsch & Rogoff, 1984). These higher attributes had their origin in the forms of the child’s collective behaviour in co-operation with other people. Later, they become absorbed in the internal individual functions of the child (Vygotsky, 1994). In this way the child’s thought, emotions and behaviour is transformed from the interpersonal to the intrapersonal or intrapsychological.

These transformations were how Vygotsky (1978, pp.56-57) explained the internalisation process. It begins with the reconstruction of an external activity that starts to occur internally. This is the beginning of the transformation of the interpersonal on the social level to the intrapersonal on the individual level. Then a long series of developmental events results in the transformation to the intrapersonal. However, the process of internalisation must be motivated and not merely copied (Ratner & Stettner, 1991). Children select, filter and transform what they have experienced collectively with adults before internalisation. For Vygotsky, this development from the interpsychological to the intrapsychological is the central method of psychological science (1978, p.7).

A concept within Vygotsky’s (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interaction theory is the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD is the distance between the actual developmental level inside the child when acting independently (intrapersonal) and the level of potential development. The potential development level is determined by what the child understands with the help of a more capable adult (interpersonal). Vygotsky (1956, in Wertsch & Rogoff, 1984) argued that instruction was only effective when it operated ahead of the level of development. In this way the instruction then triggered those processes in the maturation stage within the ZPD of his social interaction theory.

For Vygotsky’s (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interaction theory, the organisation of social functioning is reflected in the organisation of individual functioning. In this way the patterns of social interaction are reflected in the patterns of individual psychological functioning (Wertsch & Rogoff, 1984). In this way, the patterns of individual (or intrapsychological) functioning reflect the patterns of the social interaction or collective activity in the environment. The environmental patterns are able to influence the child’s

psychological development and personality through his [or her] emotional experiences (Vygotsky, 1994, p.339). The degree of influence is determined by the degree of the child's emotional experience.

A Russian intellectual, Vygotsky worked in psychology from 1924 until his death in 1934. Although he was committed to a psychology based on Marxist premises, he was also dedicated to the intellectual "freshening" of Marxist doctrine (Bruner, 1984). Some of his essays and lectures were deemed "revisionist" by the Russian authorities and were not published until much later. Selections of his works were published in English from 1962 onwards as his social interactionist theory became more widely known in the Western world.

The development from the social or collective activity in Vygotsky's (1978) theory was aided by language which was one of the major tools of that collectivity. Bruner (1984) contrasted Vygotsky's collective theory with the developmental views of Western Europe. In particular, he cited Piaget's view of human development as a lone venture as the child passes through certain stages of mastering conceptual matters with which others could not help. Bruner (1984, p.96) stated that:

'Now, all these years later, Vygotsky's star is rising in the Western sky as Piaget's declines, while it is declining in the East (at least officially) where no new one is yet in sight.'

With the publication in English of Vygotsky's papers, Western psychologists have tested his theories in their research in various fields.

In the field of children's personal narrative development, Peterson and McCabe (1992) have noted that Vygotskian theory would predict that parental elicitation styles would result in individual differences in their children's narrative skills. They cite two longitudinal examples of Vygotskian internalisation of parental strategies: McCabe and Peterson (1991) and Fivush (1991). Also, Reese and Fivush (1993) have pointed out that recent research has supported a Vygotskian interpretation. They cite three examples where maternal narrative styles have been shown to have longitudinal effects on their children's narratives: McCabe and Peterson (1991), Fivush (1991) and Hudson (1990).

Recent research in children's emotional language in narratives has supported Vygotsky's (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interaction theory of emotions as well as his

ZPD. The mothers' emotional language in the earlier interpersonal time was internalised by the children and was evident in their later narratives, for example: Miller and Sperry (1987), Dunn et al. (1987), Kuebli et al. (1995) and Haden et al. (1997). In two other longitudinal studies (Fivush, 1991; McCabe & Peterson, 1991) mothers who earlier spoke differently about evaluations that contained emotion words had children who later differed in a parallel way.

Comparison of Harré's and Vygotsky's Theories

Both Harré (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) and Vygotsky (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) averred that cognition and affect were intertwined. They both advocated examining language to study thought and emotions. Both theorists considered that children's emotional language was socially constructed from interaction with a more capable adult who was usually the mother. For Harré, social behaviour in the culture was maintained through language. Similarly, for Vygotsky, language was a social and cultural phenomenon that mediated social and psychological processes.

In Harré's social construction view, the local language and local moral order impact on emotion. A child learns to label emotions from the mother. The mother labels the emotions of herself, her child and others as well as giving causes and consequences of them. The mother is part of a culture, or a particular group within the culture. It is implicit that research should necessarily be longitudinal.

In Vygotsky's interactionist view, thoughts, behaviour and speech about emotions move from social (interpersonal) to private (intrapersonal). The interpersonal speech with adults is usually ahead of the child's independent performance but within her/his zone of proximal development (ZPD). The interpersonal speech is internalised with motivation over time to become intrapersonal or intrapsychological within the child. The child can then speak or act independently at that level. To capture the transformation from interpersonal to intrapersonal, research must be longitudinal.

It can be seen that the emotional theories of Harré and Vygotsky do not differ in any fundamental way. Vygotsky's 'ZPD' spells out the processes of transformation in a more specific way than does Harré's 'labelling'.

Preschoolers' Emotional Language

All the longitudinal studies reviewed in the following three sections supported both Harré's (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) social construction of emotions theory and Vygotsky's (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interaction theory. The research is critically reviewed under three sections, viz.: videotaping, observation with audiotaping and audiotaping, and will be followed by a summary of results and methods.

Videotaping

Miller and Sperry (1987) used a cultural approach under natural conditions to study preschoolers' socialisation of anger and aggression. The participants were unmarried mothers whose daughters were aged 18 to 25 months old at the beginning of the eight month study. Twelve one-hour video-recorded sessions of everyday behaviour were made in their homes at three weekly intervals, with extended family, friends and other children present. During the videotaping, various arguments and fights occurred among the children and the adults. Further data was obtained from audiotaped interviews with each mother about life experiences and her childrearing ideology and practices. Although the informal talk with the interviewer included tales of anger, aggression and violence, the mothers did not shield their daughters from these stories. The mothers related negative acts or language and then justified their own retaliation to these transgressions. This appeared to be part of the values of their urban, workingclass community. At the end of the eight-month study, the preschoolers were justifying their own anger and aggression by referring to the negative emotional language and transgressions of others.

In Miller and Sperry's (1987) study the mothers socialised the anger and aggression of their children. This was apparent by the relationship between the mothers' verbal justification of their own past anger and aggression and their preschoolers' justification of

negative emotional behaviour and language eight months later. In the mothers' culture, anger and aggression were justified if one was wronged but unjustified under other conditions.

A major strength of Miller and Sperry's (1987) study was the frequent videotaping over eight months of the everyday life of the mothers and preschoolers in their own homes with family and friends around them. This well-designed method included audiotaped interviews with the mothers with their children present. Major weaknesses the very small number of dyads and that the preschoolers were all girls. Nevertheless, valid conclusions can be drawn from these case studies on the role of language in the socialisation of emotion within a culture.

Observation With Audiotaping

Naturally occurring conversations of preschoolers at home were examined by Dunn et al. (1987). Their research focussed on the spontaneous discussion of feeling states with mothers and siblings, as well as the change over six months. Their sample of 43 second born children (18-month-old) were audiotaped in narratives with mother and older sibling, and this was repeated six months later at Time Two. The mothers carried on with their usual household routine while talking to their children, who were moving around and playing 'pretend' games. The mothers were told the investigation was on the normal interactions between siblings. The method used was audiotaping with a portable taperecorder combined with one investigator using paper and pencil recording of the narratives. Two observations of one hour each were made at each time point for both samples. The audiotape transcriptions were coded by another investigator.

Coding of narratives for feeling-state words was in three categories: quality of consciousness, sensations and physiological states, and emotional states. Conversations about feeling-states were analysed in terms of whose feeling-state, who began the conversation, who referred to the feeling-state, and any antecedents or consequences of the feeling-state. Also, explicit references to feeling states were commenting, explaining, or attempting to guide behaviour (making suggestions, offering help or directing behaviour).

The findings in Dunn et al.'s (1987) study revealed that two year old children referred to a range of feeling states in self and others. Also, they discussed the cause of

feeling states in a variety of contexts, including pretend games. References to feeling states made by mother and older sibling when the target child was 18 months were positively correlated with the target child's speech about feeling states at 24 months. Also, there were gender differences in that both mothers and older siblings mentioned feeling states more frequently to girls than to boys. Six months later, the girls themselves referred to feeling states significantly more often than boys.

Earlier in Dunn et al.'s (1987) research, the mothers spoke of emotion more to their daughters. Later, the girls spoke more of emotion than did boys in the study. In this way the norms of the mother were passed on to her children.

The major strength in Dunn et al.'s (1987) comprehensive study was the audiotaping at home of naturally occurring conversations between preschooler, older sibling and mother which was repeated six months later. An observer wrote down the conversations as well as taperecording them. A further strength was the number of families participating. There was adequate coding for the spontaneous discussion of feeling states and the conclusions drawn from this study were solid.

The social construction of preschoolers' personal narratives was investigated by Fivush (1991) in a longitudinal study. Six mothers elicited narratives of series of novel experiences from their preschoolers (30 to 35 months old). These were audiotaped in their homes with an experimenter monitoring the taperecorder as well as noting the nonverbal context. Over twelve months later, a different experimenter elicited narratives of past events from the preschoolers by using general prompts. This experimenter knew what events had been discussed previously but had no details of them.

The mothers' narratives were coded from Time One and the children's narratives were coded from Time Two. Coding of narratives involved the amount of information, narrative organisation and narrative function. For amount of information, units of information containing person, location, object, activity or attribute were coded. Narrative organisation involved temporal organisation and narrative density; and narrative functions which included orienting, referential and evaluating. The evaluating function provided information about how to think about the event, including affect and intensifiers.

Fivush's (1991) findings revealed that mothers who supplied temporally complex and more information in their narratives had children who related temporally complex and more information one year later. Also, children who provided more orienting or background information later had mothers who had made more orienting propositions earlier. Mothers who used complex temporal markers such as causal connectives in their narrative discourse had children who incorporated more of such markers into their narratives a year later. Moreover, evaluative information as in affect and intensifiers was evident in the mothers' narratives from the first interview and the children's narratives from the second interview. This longitudinal study contains evaluative information in the mothers' earlier narratives and the children's later narratives and it demonstrates the mothers' earlier influence on their children's later narratives.

In Fivush's (1991) study the mothers differed in the way they spoke to their children. This earlier speech was internalised by the children. This is shown by the children's later speech paralleling their mothers in either complexity, density, orientation or evaluation (including emotional language).

Among the strengths of Fivush's (1991) well-designed study was the audiotaping at home of narratives of novel experiences by mother-preschooler dyads. This was monitored by an experimenter who noted the nonverbal context (which was not reported in the results). A further strength was that another experimenter elicited audiotaped narratives at home from the child over a year later. Using an experimenter dramatised the paralleling of the differences in the mothers' earlier speech with in the children's later speech. Coding was on information and organisation as well as the orienting, referential and evaluating (including emotional language) functions. This coding was adequate for the purpose of the study. A major weakness was the number of mother-child dyads ($n=6$) which Fivush described as extremely small for analyses. Even so, valid conclusions have been made between the similarities of the mothers' conversations at the earlier date and their preschoolers' conversations over a year later.

Audiotaping

The mothers' elicitation styles for their preschoolers' narratives were shown to be related to later narratives in a longitudinal study by McCabe and Peterson (1991). Mothers of ten preschoolers (aged 25 to 27 months) were asked to elicit audiotaped narratives from their children at home about past personal experiences at Time One and four months later at Time Two. Eleven months later, at Time Three, an experimenter prompted the children for narratives at home using the procedure developed by Peterson and McCabe (1983). The parent's speech at Time One and Time Two were coded for open- and closed-ended questions initiating and extending a topic, echoes, clarifying questions, statements initiating and extending a topic, statements showing attention, clarifying questions that were partial echoes, and appreciations of the child's narratives. Children's narratives from Time Three were scored for the number of clauses containing a verb. Also, for orientation ("I was in the house"), evaluation ("Because it's cold"), or complicating action ("I throw stones there").

Results in McCabe and Peterson's (1991) study revealed differences in parental elicitation, with the amount of talk from the child about each narrated experience differing according to the elicitation style. A quantitative analysis revealed 'topic-extenders' and 'topic-switchers'. Qualitative analysis added 'repetitive' and 'confrontational topic-extender'. 'Topic-extension' mothers extended topics by asking many questions, and making statements contributing to topic development, and their children's narratives at Time Three were the longest with the most information. Mothers, who were 'topic-switchers', changed the subject frequently, and their children had the shortest narratives at Time Three and had the least information. 'Repetitive' mothers supplied little information or elaboration and did not ask their children unknown questions, and their children's narratives at Time Three were much shorter and contained less information. The 'confrontational topic-extention' mother drilled her son to 'get-the-facts-straight' rather than accepting his version of the event. At Time Three, this child was an above-average narrator.

The children's narratives contained the same amount of evaluation as in Peterson and McCabes (1983) study although this was not reported (Peterson, 1992, personal communication). The children's narratives in Peterson and McCabe's study were 15% fully evaluative, including emotional language, and a further 35% partially evaluative. Therefore, it

is probable that the longer narratives from children of topic-extension mothers contained more emotion words than the shorter narratives of the children of than of repetitive or topic-switching mothers.

Earlier in McCabe and Peterson's (1991) research, the mothers' elicitation styles had a marked effect on their children's narratives, either in the amount of information or length (including emotional language) about past experiences. Later, this was mirrored in the narratives elicited from these children by experimenters.

A major strength in McCabe and Peterson's (1991) comprehensive study were two time periods for the mothers elicitation of narratives audiotaped at home and a later one for the children's narratives which were elicited by experimentators. The use of an experimenter highlighted the mirroring of the differences in the mothers' earlier speech with in the children's later speech. There was an adequate number of participants. Coding included questions and statements regarding initiating, clarifying and extending the topic for the mothers and for the children, the coding covered length, orientation, evaluation and action. adequate number of participants. This coding was adequate for the purpose of the study, which was a strength. The purpose of this well-designed study was to support the social interactionist account of narrative development and the conclusions of the authors were validly based.

The manner in which mothers (n=18) spoke to their preschoolers about emotions was shown by Kuebli et al. (1995) to relate to the manner in which their children conversed about emotions 30 months later. Kuebli et al. examined the mother-child narratives about shared past experiences at Time One when the children were 40 months-old, again at Time Two when 58 months-old and again at Time Three when 70 months-old. At Time One, mothers discussed on audiotape at home shared past events with their children. The mothers were unaware of the researchers' interest in the emotional content of the children's recollections. This was repeated at Time Two and at Time Three.

Coding of emotion words included whether they were positive or negative, the number of unique emotion terms, and whether an emotion was attributed to the child or to others. Emotion discussions were coded into the length of the conversation about an

emotion. These included: a single turn, with no response to the emotion reference; a confirmation, when the other member explicitly confirms it; and an extended discussion, with at least three adjacent turns about the referenced emotion.

At each of the times, the mothers used more emotion words with daughters than with sons. Over time, the mothers increased the variety of emotion words with daughters. Also, they focussed more on negative emotions with daughters. After 30 months, the daughters conversed more often and in greater variety about emotion than did the sons.

In Kuebli et al.'s (1995) study the mothers differed in the way they spoke to their children about emotions. Over the 30 month period, more emotional language was used with girls than with boys. By the end of the study these girls not only had a larger emotional language vocabulary but talked more about emotions than did the boys.

Among the strengths of Kuebli et al.'s (1995) comprehensive study were the number of participants, the length of the study as well as the time periods, and the audiotaping at home of narratives about past experiences. As well, the coding of emotional language was adequate, including not only unique words but also the length of the conversations about an explicit emotion. This thorough study had solid conclusions about the relationship between the mothers' earlier emotional language and the children's later use of emotional language in narratives about the past.

Relationships in the structure of parents' and children's narratives were studied by Haden et al. (1997) in a longitudinal study. Families (n=15) with mothers, fathers and preschoolers aged 40 months participated at Time One and at Time Two (30 months later). At both time points, the families were visited in their homes for mother-child, father-child and experimenter-child interviews were audiotaped at separate sessions. Mothers and fathers both selected three shared events to discuss with their preschoolers while the experimenter discussed events the child had shared with the mother.

Narratives were first coded for structure, including: referential actions, referential descriptions, orientations, or evaluations. Orientations were then divided into spatial-temporal or person. Evaluations were then divided into internal states, intensifiers, affect modifiers and emphasis.

Results for Haden et al.'s (1997) study revealed that preschoolers conversed differently with mothers than with fathers even though the parents structured narratives in a similar way. The maternal emphasis on evaluation (which included emotions) in narratives at Time One influenced the children's later competency in the use of evaluation in discussions with an unfamiliar experimenter.

At the earlier time in Haden et al.'s (1997) research, the mothers emphasised evaluation which included emotions when talking to their children about shared events. Thirty months later, experimenters noted that the children used evaluations proficiently when narrating past experiences.

Haden et al.'s (1997) study had many strengths including the number of participating families, a follow-up 30 months later and adequate coding of emotional language. Two strengths stand out: the first was the inclusion of fathers and the second was the inclusion of experimenter-child interviews together with the mother-child and father-child narratives that were audiotaped at home at both time points. The focus of this well-designed study was the developing ability to communicate the meaning and happenings of past experiences, and the conclusions were solidly based.

Preschoolers' Emotional Language: Summary of Results

In Harré's (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) theory of the social construction of emotions, the belief system of the culture concerning emotions is maintained and transmitted from the mother to child by means of language. To either support this theory or to be consistent with it, longitudinal research must show that the mother's norms about emotions and emotional language were assimilated by her child as shown in later narratives.

For Vygotsky's (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interaction theory of emotion, the interpersonal speech between adult and child becomes transformed or internalised over the ZPD into intrapersonal speech of the child. To either support this theory or to be consistent with it, longitudinal research must show that the earlier emotional speech of the mother with her child was internalised by the child as reflected in later speech.

The results of the foregoing studies either supported or were consistent with both Harré's and Vygotsky's theories, as shown in the following summary.

In the earlier part of Miller and Sperry's (1987) eight-month study, the working-class mothers related others' past negative emotional acts and language before justifying their own reactions to these transgressions. By the end of the study, their preschoolers were justifying their own anger and aggression by referring to the negative emotional language and transgressions of others. Ratner and Stettner (1991) attested that Miller and Sperry's study complied with the social construction of emotions as in Harré's (1986) theory and with the socialisation of emotions as in the Vygotskian (1987) model.

Mothers mentioned feeling states more frequently to girls than to boys in naturally occurring conversations at the beginning of Dunn et al.'s (1987) six-month study. Later, the girls spoke more of emotion than did boys.

The first narrative elicitation in Fivush's (1991) year-long study showed that mothers differed in the way they spoke to their children about past events. In the later elicited by experimentors, the children's speech paralleled their mothers in either evaluation (including emotional language), complexity, density or orientation. Fivush tested Vygotsky's (1978) social interaction theory on the development of personal narratives. Peterson and McCabe (1992) cited Fivush's study as an example of the Vygotskian internalisation of parental strategies in that parental styles resulted in individual differences in their children's narrative skills. Reese and Fivush (1992) attested that Fivush's study supported the Vygotskian interpretation where maternal narrative styles have been shown to have longitudinal effects on their children's narratives:

In McCabe and Peterson's (1991) 15-month study, the mothers were shown in two time periods to have different styles for the elicitation of narratives about past experiences from their preschoolers. These styles paralleled their children's narratives in the different length and density of information (including emotion words) that were elicited at a later time period by experimentors. McCabe and Peterson proposed the Vygotskian (1986) social interaction account of personal narrative development and found that: "Children develop personal narratives in anticipation of habitual parental interaction " (p.250, 1991). Peterson and McCabe (1992) attested that McCabe and Peterson's study was an example of the

Vygotskian internalisation of parental strategies in that parental styles would result in individual differences children's narrative skills resulted from their parents' elicitation styles. Reese and Fivush (1992) cited McCabe and Peterson's study as an example of the Vygotskian interpretation where the longitudinal effects on children's narratives have resulted from maternal narrative styles.

Mothers in Kuebli et al.'s (1995) 30-month study elicited narratives at three time periods about shared past experiences from their preschoolers. During these times they not only spoke more about emotion to, but used more unique emotion language with, their daughters rather than their sons. By the end of the study, these girls not only had a larger emotional language vocabulary but talked more about emotions than did the boys.

Narratives on shared past events by the parents and interviewers at Times One and Two in Haden et al.'s (1997) 30-month study. The earlier maternal emphasis on evaluation (which included emotional language) was apparent later in the proficient way their children used evaluations in narratives elicited by experimenters. Haden et al. tested the Vygotskian (1978) ZPD in their study of the developmental process of personal narrative skills.

There have been no other studies to date on the mother's role in any variation in the preschoolers' emotional language.

Preschoolers' Emotional Language: Summary of Methodology

Studies needed to be longitudinal for the development of children's emotional language and these ranged from six months to 30 months. There appeared to be two main modes of exploring preschoolers' emotional language at home: in naturally occurring conversations and in elicited narratives about past experiences. The conclusions from all these studies were based on solid findings.

Two studies were in natural settings with families present. Spontaneous discussions and play were possible with mothers, families and friends who were videotaped and with mothers and older siblings who were observed and audiotaped.

The other four studies used audiotaped narratives although with differing eliciting participants and methods. Two studies used past personal experiences as the subject of mother-child narratives at Time One. Their later use of experimenters to elicit narratives

isolated the extent of the mothers' influence on their children's language. The remaining two studies with the longest time frame used shared past experiences. One of these had mothers eliciting narratives over three time periods. The other had narratives elicited by mothers, fathers and experimenters at two time periods.

Some studies were characterised by a small sample size which perhaps reflected the constraints of time and cost or the attrition of participants by Time Two of the research. Most narrative studies for emotional language range from 10 dyads to 18 dyads. The home observation and audiotaping with a large number of families was unusual but powerful.

These longitudinal studies all supported or were consistent with the view of the social construction of emotional language in preschoolers. The lack of experimental studies is surprising, given the causal assumptions built into the theories on the social construction of emotions.

Essentially the most effective studies on preschoolers' emotional language have been longitudinal, audiotaped narratives about past emotional experiences and this is the method used in the present research.

Preschoolers' Emotional Language: Subject Matter for Elicitation

Naturally occurring conversations at home have been found to include emotional or evaluative language, as in the studies by Miller and Sherry (1987) and Dunn et al. (1987). In conversations about past events, mothers can help their children to set emotional tone and meaning of the event (Fivush, 1991a). The children can then add their own thoughts and feelings about these meaningful occurrences in relationship to the emotions of others (Fivush, 1991).

It is clear from the foregoing studies that the earlier emotional language of the mothers has had an effect on the later emotional language of their preschoolers consistent with the view of the social construction of emotions.

Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control

Emotional behaviour in children has been shown to be affected by their parents' parenting style dimensions of warmth and control. Parenting styles of warmth and control will be discussed under the following three sections: theories, children's emotional behaviour, and upbringing and beliefs.

Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control: Theories

Theories of parenting styles of warmth and control will be discussed under the following sections: Parental warmth and control, Baumrind's (1967, 1971, 1973) three parenting style dimensions, and Maccoby and Martin's (1983) fourth parenting style dimension.

Parental Warmth and Control

Erikson (1963) proposed that two parenting attributes were especially important to children during the preschool and schoolage years. The first was the degree of parental warmth displayed to the child. The second was the degree of parental control used on the child. Parental warmth was the amount of affection given by the parent and this varied on a continuum from warmth through to coldness or hostility. Parental control referred to the amount of autonomy that parents allow their children from permissiveness through to restrictiveness. Parental warmth and control were reasonably independent of each other.

Baumrind's Three Parenting Style Dimensions

Parenting styles with different degrees of warmth and control were identified first by Baumrind (1967, 1971, 1973) after several large studies. In 1967, she examined 32 preschoolers (3 and 4 years old) and their mothers. These children attended the Berkeley Child Study Center and their behaviour was assessed by nursery school teachers and observing psychologists. Parental behaviour was assessed during home visits, structured observation and interviews. There were two home visits of three hours by psychologists to

observe mother-child interaction: the first from during dinner until the child's bedtime and the second at a less stressful time. The two structured observation sessions were conducted in the laboratory with mother and child in a room with a one-way mirror for observation by the psychologist. In the first session the mother instructed her child in the use of cuisenaire rods for counting. In the second session the mother helped her child with some specific play tasks. The parental interview was on two aspects: the first on beliefs and attitudes of the mothers and the second on parenting performance. Baumrind repeated this research in 1971 with 130 schoolchildren (8 to 9 years old).

Baumrind (1967, 1971, 1973) identified three parenting style dimensions (authoritative, authoritarian and permissive) that equated with different behaviours in their children. More warmth and control was shown by authoritative style parents who valued autonomous self-will and disciplined conformity mixed with affection. These authoritative parents' children were competent and had spontaneity, warmth and zest. In contrast, authoritarian style parents were unaffectionate and used firm control as they valued obedience as a virtue. Their children were prone to anger, dysphoria and had disaffiliative responses. These children also lacked social competence, spontaneity and intellectual curiosity. Baumrind's permissive style parents lacked control as they allowed autonomy instead of shaping their children's behaviour. Their children were dependent, immature and impulsive. Some permissive parents were very protective and loving but others were self-involved.

In short, authoritative parents had both warmth and control and their children displayed more positive emotional behaviour. In contrast, Baumrind's (1967, 1971, 1973) non-authoritative parents did not have both warmth and control and their children evinced more negative emotional behaviour. Of the three parenting style dimensions of warmth and control, Baumrind regarded the authoritative style as optimal.

Later, Baumrind (1978) quantified Erikson's (1963) dimensions of parental warmth and parental control. In the typology for 'warmth', she included responsiveness to child, warmth with child and lack of anger at child. The typology for 'control' was structure and limit setting.

Maccoby and Martin's Fourth Parenting Style Dimension

Maccoby and Martin (1983) examined Baumrind's (1967, 1971, 1973) literature on the permissive style of parenting. They found a fourth group (uninvolved) within the permissive group, making four parenting style dimensions in all. Uninvolved parents were indifferent to their children's need for discipline or affection. These parents were more focused on their own comfort than on the care of their children. The children of uninvolved parents had lowered self-esteem which was often accompanied by aggressive and disagreeable behaviour.

The criteria for parenting styles to a fourfold scheme was revised by Maccoby and Martin (1983) who used the two orthogonal dimensions of parenting: warmth or responsiveness, and control or demandingness. The dimension of warmth was either child-centred (i.e., accepting and responsive) or parent-centred (i.e., rejecting and unresponsive). The dimension of control was either demanding and controlling or undemanding and low in control attempts. In the fourfold scheme of parenting styles authoritative parents had more warmth and more control, authoritarian parents had less warmth and more control, permissive parents had more warmth and less control, and uninvolved parents had less warmth and less control.

Maccoby (1992) also endorsed the authoritative parenting style dimension of high warmth and firm but fair control as optimal. She stated that:

‘.... it has to do with inducting the child into a system of reciprocity.’
(p.1013).

In Maccoby's view, the authoritative parent puts certain self-interests to one side. In turn, the parent expects the child to progressively become more responsive to the needs of other family members.

Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control: Summary of Theories

There are four parenting style dimensions of warmth and control: authoritative and three non-authoritative consisting of authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved. Authoritative parents are warmer and have more control and their children evince more positive emotional

behaviour. Non-authoritative parents have only warmth or control or neither and their children display more negative emotional behaviour.

Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control: Children's Emotional Behaviour

The emotional behaviour of preschoolers, schoolchildren and adolescents has been shown to be affected by the differing parenting styles of warmth and control used during their childhood. The different methods used in studies to obtain these parenting styles are critically reviewed under four sections: videotaping, observations, interviews and questionnaires. This is followed by a summary of results and methods.

Videotaping

The three studies reviewed had videotaped interaction of families as well as questionnaires. The first two were longitudinal and included interviews. The third study was concurrent.

Parenting styles of warmth and control have been shown by Patterson and Stouthamer-Loeber (1984) to have an impact on the delinquency of preadolescent and adolescent boys. They investigated 206 boys (10 to 16 years old) and their parents in three phases. The method included videotaped interaction of families, separate interviews, school data and phone interviews. In addition, nearly half the families had home observation and questionnaires. The first phase concerned school data such as teacher and peer ratings, school grades, attendance and achievement tests. The second phase was a three-hour session with separate structured interviews for boys and parents, and a video-taped interaction session in the laboratory involving problem solving with the families. The third phase involved six telephone interviews (over three months) with boys and parents about the hours the children were directly unsupervised outside the home. In addition, nearly half the families had three home observations of family interaction and questionnaires.

Parental management criteria were the dimensions of monitoring, discipline, problem-solving and reinforcement. Monitoring was the amount of knowledge the parents had about

the whereabouts of their children as rated in interviews with the child, the mother and on the telephone. Discipline was derived from observer ratings on the mother's followed up commands as well as the father's and mother's consistency in their discipline. The observers' three global ratings were made after each home session. Problem-solving was rated by observers for 'qualities of family interaction and problem resolution' after coding the video-taped problem-solving session. Reinforcement was three measures from the observed positive parent-child interaction, the child interview report and observers' global ratings at the end of sessions. Problem-solving and reinforcement could equate to Baumrind's (1978) warmth while monitoring could equate to her control.

Criteria used for delinquency by Patterson and Stouthamer-Loeber (1984) were police contacts and self-reported delinquency. Further evidence of the children's positive and negative behaviour was from school data, interviews with boys and parents, parent-son videotaped interaction, telephone interviews with boys and parents as well as the home observations.

Patterson and Stouthamer-Loeber's (1984) analysis revealed that less monitoring and less discipline were associated with delinquency in the preadolescents and adolescents at the end of three months. In contrast, problem solving and reinforcement which was more authoritative were related to the children's positive behaviour. Parents of these delinquents were indifferent to their sons' activities, companions or whereabouts. The researchers named such parents "unattached". This would equate to the uninvolved parenting style, which is non-authoritative.

The strengths of Patterson and Stouthamer-Loeber's (1984) longitudinal study included the large number of participants. This comprehensive study had the videotaped problem-solving interaction of families in the laboratory as well as separate structured interviews and questionnaires for parents and children. Also, all the sample had telephone interviews with parents and boys for three months while half the sample had three home observations of family interaction. A further strength was that parenting practices and children's positive and negative behaviour were derived from videotaping, interviews and questionnaires. As well, teachers' ratings and police records were used for the children's behaviour. A weakness of Patterson and Stouthamer-Loeber's (1984) study was that they

only studied boys, but this may have been that in the early eighties girls were not as delinquent as they are now. Also, although parental warmth equated with Baumrind's (1978) typology, parental control was more negative. Overall, the findings of this research appear to be solid and the two weaknesses do not invalid the conclusions.

The authoritative parenting style of warmth and control has been shown by Hetherington and Clingempeel (1992) to aid adolescents in their adjustment to the marital transitions of their parents. They studied 202 families where the target children were eleven years old. There were three groups of parents: non-divorced, divorced and remarried after divorce. Families were visited approximately four months after separation or remarriage. The method included videotaped family interaction as well as interviews and questionnaires. There were two videotaping scenarios: family interaction at the dinner hour and family problem-solving interaction. There were two researchers involved in the structured interviews. The first interviewed the mother and father together but the parents recorded their answers separately. The second researcher interviewed the target child and sibling in another room. There were follow-up visits thirteen months later and then seven months later over the twenty month period.

Hetherington and Clingempeel's (1992) measures of parenting included the dimensions of warmth, involvement, quality of communication, negativity, control, monitoring, discipline and the frequency of parent-child conflict. Warmth, involvement and quality of communication could equate to Baumrind's (1978) warmth while control and monitoring could equate to her control. These were compiled from the interviews and questionnaires from parents and children as well as the observer ratings of parent-child interaction in the two videotaped sessions.

Measures of the target children's behaviour were in four parts (Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992) . The first was assessments from two teachers on the children's cognitive, social and personal competence as well as problem behaviours. For the second part the parents reported on problem behaviours and competencies. The third part consisted of the children's own self-report on social responsibility, cognitive agency, sociability and whether they perceived themselves to be energetic, attractive and popular. The final part

consisted of reports from parents and children on the amount of coerciveness, depression and delinquency in the previous 24 hours.

Analyses by Hetherington and Clingempeel (1992) revealed that authoritative parents were associated with their adolescents' positive adjustments to their parents' divorce and to their remarriage (over the 20 months). Regardless of family type, authoritative parenting was a predictor of lower levels of externalising behaviour and higher levels of social and scholastic competence. The positive emotional behaviour of adolescents was associated with the authoritative parenting style of warmth and control of their parents.

The large number of participants were among the strengths of Hetherington and Clingempeel's (1992) comprehensive longitudinal study as well as videotaped problem-solving of families, questionnaires and separate structured interviews. Also, children's positive and negative behaviour and parental practices were derived from these three sources. As well, parenting styles of warmth and control equated with Baumrind's (1978) typology. A further major strength was the comparison of three groups of parents. No weaknesses were apparent in this research and the conclusions were based on firm findings.

Parenting styles of warmth and control have been shown to have an association to the emotional behaviour of preschoolers and schoolchildren by Miller, Cowan, Cowan, Hetherington and Clingempeel (1993). They explored the relationship between the externalising behaviour of children and the parenting style, depression and marital quality, of their parents. Their first age sample was of 41 parents and preschoolers (42 months old). The method included videotaped interaction of three tasks involving parents and the preschooler, as well as questionnaires. The first task involved the parents eliciting from the child a story unknown to them that had been related to the child by an experimenter. The second task involved the parents helping the child build some difficult block models. The third task comprised an unstructured play on a sand table with miniatures.

Miller et al. (1993) measured parenting styles on 'warmth' as in responsiveness, warmth and lack of anger and 'control' as in limit setting and structure as in Baumrind's (1978) typology. This warmth and control were rated from the observers' ratings from the videotaped parent-child interaction as well as the questionnaires from both parents.

Children's externalising behaviour was described by Miller et al. (1993) as angry, defiant, acting-out child behaviour. This was comprised of separate reports from parents on the child's behaviour as well as observers' ratings from videotapes of negative emotions displayed towards each parent.

This research by Miller et al. (1993) revealed that parents who were less warm and less supportive in interactions with their preschoolers felt more depressed and had a less than supportive marital relationship. Parents who were less warm and less supportive would be non-authoritative. In turn, their children were more likely to display negative interpersonal behaviour and problems of aggression. Miller et al. replicated these findings in their second age sample of 62 schoolchildren (9 to 13 years old). These two age samples revealed a relationship between the non-authoritative parenting style of warmth and control and the negative emotional behaviour of preschoolers and preadolescent children.

A strength for Miller et al.'s (1993) concurrent study was the two age samples. This study had videotaped family interaction, questionnaires, story telling, problem solving and sandplay in the laboratory. Parenting practices and children's behaviour were both derived from videotaping and questionnaires, with the latter from teacher ratings. As well, parenting styles of warmth and control followed Baumrind's (1978) typology. A weakness was that no positive behaviour for children was mentioned as Miller et al. reported on angry, defiant behaviour. As a consequence, the findings revealed that children's externalising behaviour was associated with non-authoritative parenting combined with lower marital quality and depression. Perhaps comparable groups of authoritative, non-depressed and happily married parents in both age groups in a longitudinal study would have strengthened the findings.

Observation

The first study reviewed was longitudinal and had observation of parents and children as well as interviews by psychologists. The second study was concurrent and had observation of family interaction that was audiotaped for rating by another coder.

Authoritative parenting has been shown to be predictive of competent, well-adjusted children by Baumrind (1991). She examined adolescents and their parents as part of her

Family Socialization and Development Competence longitudinal programme of research. The sample comprised 124 adolescents aged approximately fifteen years. The method used included observation of parents (30 hours) and adolescents (20 hours) as well as interviews with two psychologists.

Parenting styles of warmth and control were compiled from the extensive observation of families and from psychologists' interviews. In dealing with adolescents, Baumrind (1991) increased the four parenting style dimensions. The *authoritative* prototype remained at high in both warmth and control but a "*good-enough*" style comprising moderate warmth and control was added. The authoritarian prototype became *authoritarian-directive* which was intrusive and emphasised control over freedom. A non-intrusive directive called *non-authoritarian directive* was added. The permissive prototype was either *democratic* with more conscientious and committed parents or *non-directive* with parents who emphasised freedom over control. The uninvolved or *disengaged* prototype remained low in both warmth and control.

Adolescent emotional behaviour was compiled from interviews with psychologists and from the extensive observation of the families (Baumrind, 1991).

Baumrind (1991) found that authoritative parents had competent, well-adjusted children. Also, these parents, even in divorced families, were successful in protecting their adolescents from problem drug use. Heavy drug users were found among the children of democratic parents who valued freedom highly and were permissive. The authoritative parenting style of warmth and control was found to engender positive emotional behaviour in adolescents. In contrast, the permissive, non-authoritative parenting style was associated with adolescents' negative emotional behaviour and their heavy drug use.

Among the major strengths were the large numbers of participants and Baumrind's (1991) comprehensive longitudinal method of observation and interviews with psychologists as part of her longitudinal research programme. As well, parenting styles of warmth and control followed her 1978 typology. Also collated from the observations and interviews were the adolescent competency, adjustment and drug use. One would hesitate to criticise Baumrind's well-established research programme. Findings were firmly based on Baumrind's worthwhile research and her conclusions were sound.

Schoolage children's prosocial behaviour has been shown by Dekovic and Janssens (1992) to be related to parenting styles of warmth and control. They investigated 112 schoolchildren (6 to 11 years old) and their mothers and fathers. The method used to ascertain the parenting style was audiotaped interaction between parents and children for two ten minute sessions in puzzle tasks at home. An observer rated the parents for the frequency of nonverbal actions support and negativeness then later gave an overall rating on warmth and control. A separate rater coded the audiotape of the interaction session.

Dekovic and Janssens (1992) compiled the parenting styles from observation of non-verbal action, overall observation and audiotape ratings. Non-verbal support included approval, physical affection, laughter, smiling and brief utterances indicating positive mood or positive tension release. Non-verbal negativeness included physical take-overs, annoyance, disapproval and brief utterances indicating negative mood or negative tension release. Overall rating of the parents was for warmth, responsiveness, power assertion, induction, demandingness and restrictiveness. Separate audiotape rating was on positive or negative remarks about task, positive or negative remarks about child, support, prohibitions, directives, suggestions and provision of information.

Children's prosocial behaviour was on the basis of reports from teachers and peers (Dekovic & Janssens, 1992). Teachers reported on the prosocial behaviour of children using 20 items. Each child named three classmates 'best liked' and three 'least liked'. This divided the children into two groups: popular and rejected. In addition, the children named the helpfulness of other children.

Analyses by Dekovic and Janssens (1992) showed that authoritative parents had children who were popular, displayed prosocial behaviour and were helpful to their peers. In contrast, authoritarian parents had children who were rejected, displayed antisocial behaviour and were unhelpful to their peers. The authoritative parenting style of warmth and control was associated with positive emotional behaviour in schoolchildren. In contrast, negative emotional behaviour was associated with the non-authoritative style.

Dekovic and Janssens (1992) used observation and had large numbers of families which were strengths. The combined observation with audiotaping of family interaction on

puzzle tasks at home rated by two observers to give reliability was a further strength. Also, the parenting styles of warmth and control typologies equated with Baumrind's (1978) typology. Another strength was that the children's prosocial behaviour was from reports from teachers and votes from peers on amiability and helpfulness to other children. A weakness was that the study was not longitudinal. While a longitudinal study would have added more strength, the findings were solid and the conclusions drawn appear to be sound.

Interview

The one study reviewed with interviews was longitudinal.

Brook, Whiteman, Normura, Gordon and Cohen (1988) found an association between warm parents with structured control and adolescents who were less likely to use marihuana. They studied the relationship between adolescent drug use and personality, family and ecological influences. The longitudinal research was of 583 families at Time One and 435 families eight years later at Time Two. At Time One, when the children were five to ten years, home interviews were conducted with the mothers about themselves and their children. Interviews were conducted separately at Time Two with the mothers and their adolescent children.

Parenting styles were rated by Brook et al. (1988) on the parent-child mutual attachment and parental control derived from the above. This would equate with Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control. These were measured from the maternal interviews at Time One and Time Two on child-rearing techniques, family structure, family health and demographical details as well as mother-child relationships at Time Two.

The adolescents' positive or negative behaviour was rated from maternal and adolescent interviews (Brook et al., 1988). The maternal interviews at Time One and Time Two were on the children's personality, behaviour and development. The adolescent interviews at Time Two were on personality, attitudes, behaviour (including drug use) and interpersonal relationships.

The results of Brook et al.'s (1988) eight year study revealed that adolescents with less marihuana use were associated with parents in a warm and conflict-free relationship.

These parents used a more structured and less punitive form of control. A parenting style with warmth and control equates with the authoritative parenting style. Therefore, a more authoritative parenting style was shown to be associated with adolescents with more positive emotional behaviour and were less likely to use marijuana.

A strength in Brook et al.'s (1988) study was in the large sample of families at Time One and at eight years later at Time Two. A further strength was that parenting style typologies were rated on parent-child mutual attachment and parental control which equate with Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control. However, home interviews were conducted with the mothers when the children were preadolescent while both mothers and adolescents were interviewed later. A major weakness was that there was no observation of parent-child interaction at either time period. Another weakness was that the parenting styles and the preadolescents' positive or negative behaviour were derived solely from the interviews with the mothers at Time One. As a consequence of the method, any conclusions derived from Time One could be suspect. As interviews were conducted with mothers and adolescents at Time Two, more weight could be given to conclusions based on Time Two findings.

Questionnaires

Self-report questionnaires for adolescents to answer at school were used for the following two concurrent studies that were part of a larger study.

Authoritative parenting styles of warmth and control have been shown to be associated with positive emotional behaviour in adolescents by Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch (1991). Their research explored the relationship between authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful parenting styles as well as adolescents' behaviour and competence. The large sample pool of 4,100 adolescents (14 to 18 years old) were given questionnaires to complete at school.

The two dimensions of parenting practice that the adolescents rated their parents on were the amounts of responsiveness and demandingness (Lamborn et al., 1991). This would equate with Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control.

The adolescents completed self-report questionnaires on their own behaviour dimensions (Lamborn et al., 1991). The dimensions were psychosocial development, academic competence, internalised distress or depression and problem behaviour such as drug or alcohol use, school misconduct, cheating or delinquency.

Lamborn et al.'s (1991) analysis showed that adolescents with authoritative parents had high psychosocial competence combined with low psychological and low behavioural dysfunction. In contrast, children of authoritarian parents had poorer self-conceptions, and children of permissive parents had a higher frequency of substance abuse. Adolescents with uninvolved parents were lower in psychosocial competence and had higher measures of both psychological and behavioural dysfunction. The authoritative parenting style of warmth and control was associated with positive emotional behaviour in adolescents while negative emotional behaviour was associated with the non-authoritative parenting styles

The one strength of Lamborn et al.'s (1991) study is the very large number of participants. Parenting practice typologies were measured on responsiveness and demandingness equated with Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control which would have been a strength if not rated solely by adolescents. A major weakness was that adolescents were given questionnaires to complete at school on the parenting practices of their parents and on their own behaviour and competence. No interaction between parent-adolescent was observed or videotaped and no questionnaires were given to parents. A further weakness was that the study was concurrent with no corroborating data. Therefore, as the adolescent's answers depended on their mood and the state of their parental relationship on the day of the questionnaire, their report on their parents could be suspect. Further to this theme, the adolescents' report on their own behaviour could possibly be unrealistic and there was no validation of them through teachers' or parents' reports, which is a weakness.

Firm, accepting parenting that was more authoritative has been shown to be associated with adolescent adjustment and positive emotional behaviour by Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn and Dornbusch (1991). They investigated 10,000 adolescents (14 to 18 years old) who were given questionnaires to complete at school on their own adjustment and the parenting practice used by their parents.

Parenting styles were rated by the adolescents on the dimensions of acceptance, firm control and psychological autonomy (Steinberg et al., 1991). The first two dimensions equate with Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control. The acceptance was the amount of love, responsiveness and involvement. Firm control was the amount of monitoring and limit setting. Psychological autonomy was the amount of non-coercive and democratic discipline.

Self-report questionnaires were completed by the adolescents on their own adjustment (Steinberg et al., 1991). Adolescent adjustment was measured by school performance, psychosocial maturity (self-reliance), psychological distress (anxiety, depression, tension, fatigue and insomnia) and behaviour problems (frequency of delinquent activities).

Analysis by Steinberg et al. (1991) showed that parents rated as accepting and firm had adolescents who reported more psychological maturity and less psychological distress and were less likely to behave in a delinquent manner. The positive aspects of this more authoritative parenting were independent of family structure and socio-economic status. The warmth and control of authoritative parenting was associated with the positive emotional behaviour of adolescents.

As in the previous concurrent study, the one strength of Steinberg et al.'s (1991) study was the extremely large number of participants. Although adolescents rated their parents, parenting practice typologies were measured on responsiveness and demandingness and equated with Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control. Again, a major weakness was that adolescents completed questionnaires at school on their own and their parents' behaviour with no interaction observed and no parental input. As in the previous study of adolescents, their answers about themselves and their parents could be suspect. As the weight of numbers does not compensate for the lack of corroboration of data, the conclusions drawn from this research may be suspect.

Children's Emotional Behaviour: Summary of Results

Authoritative parents with more warmth and more control had children who were more positive in their emotional behaviour.

An excellent longitudinal study by Hetherington and Clingempeel (1992) found that authoritative parenting was associated with positive adolescent adjustments to parental marital transitions as well as being a predictor of lower levels of externalizing behaviour. Another comprehensive study by Baumrind (1991) revealed that adolescents with authoritative parents were less likely to use drugs. This result was also found in a weaker longitudinal study by Brook et al. (1988).

A strong study by Dekovic and Janssens (1992) revealed that authoritative parents had popular, helpful schoolchildren with prosocial behaviour. Weaker studies by Steinberg et al. (1991) and Lamborn et al. (1991) found respectively that authoritative parents had adolescents with less anxiety and depression, and adolescents with both high psychosocial competence and low dysfunction psychologically and behaviourally.

In contrast, non-authoritative parents with only warmth or control or neither had children who were more negative in their emotional behaviour.

Strong longitudinal studies have shown that uninvolved parents had adolescent boys who were delinquent in their behaviour (Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984) and that permissive parents had adolescents with a high record of drug abuse (Baumrind, 1991).

Miller et al.'s (1993) study with preschoolers and schoolage children (but no parenting control group) revealed that non-authoritative parents had preschoolers and schoolage children who were externalising in their behaviour. Dekovic and Janssens' (1992) solid study found that authoritarian parenting was associated with antisocial behaviour in schoolchildren. Lamborn et al.'s (1991) weaker study revealed that authoritarian parents had adolescents with poor self-conceptions. Also, that permissive and uninvolved parents had adolescents who were low in psychosocial competence and had high psychological and behavioural dysfunction.

Children's Emotional Behaviour: Summary of Methodology

Three issues need to be addressed: the balance between parental warmth and control, the balance between children's positive and negative behaviour, and the methodology of the

study. For the latter, research needed to be longitudinal to demonstrate that the children's emotional behaviour linked with parenting styles was consistent over time.

Four of the parenting style studies reviewed were longitudinal, ranging from three months to eight years which added power to the research. Baumrind (1991) used extended observation of parents and children as well as interviews with psychologists in her solid research. As the author of the warmth and control typologies, Baumrind had parental balance as well as balanced children's behaviour. In two studies, the parent-child interaction was videotaped in the home for parental styles and for children's emotional behaviour; and also used interviews and questionnaires. The first videotaped study had three time periods, and compared three differing marital groups of parents. This excellent study had a balance between parental warmth and control as well as a balance between children's positive and negative behaviour. Parental control was more negative in the other videotaped study of adolescent boys which was otherwise most comprehensive. The weakest longitudinal study had interviews with the mothers at the first time period, followed by interviews with mothers and adolescents years later. Both parental warmth and control, and children's positive and negative behaviour were balanced, but the interview source was suspect.

Although the other four studies reviewed were concurrent, two did have redeeming features. The first study had two age groups and used videotaped interaction between parents and children for the source of parental styles based on Baumrind's typology. Weighed against this, the videotape was used for the children's negative behaviour and there were no control groups of authoritative parents. Among the redeeming features of the second study were that parental interaction with children was observed at home and that children's prosocial behaviour was obtained from school reports and peers. This study had a balance between parental warmth and control, and between children's positive and negative behaviour. The remaining two concurrent studies had numbers in the thousands but were suspect in the use of questionnaires from adolescents for parental styles as well as their own behaviour. There was a balance between parental warmth and control, and between adolescents' positive and negative behaviour although the source was suspect in both cases.

In essence, the most effective studies on parenting styles and children's emotional behaviour have been longitudinal, with parent-child interaction either videotaped or observed.

The present research is longitudinal with interactions between mothers and children being videotaped to ascertain the parenting styles and the children's emotional behaviour. There is a balance between parental warmth and control, and between children's positive and negative emotional behaviour.

It is evident from the foregoing studies that the warmth and control of parenting styles had an effect on the emotional behaviour of children. In the longitudinal studies the mothers had an influence on their children's emotional behaviour that could be consistent with the view of the social construction of emotions.

Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control: Upbringing and Beliefs

Parenting styles remembered from the upbringing adults received in their own childhood have been shown to have long-lasting effects. There have been different methods used in studies to obtain parenting styles of upbringing and beliefs. These studies are critically reviewed under three sections: videotaping, observation and interviews. This will be followed by a summary of results and methods.

Videotaping

Both the studies reviewed were part of a larger study and had interviews and questionnaires as well as the same videotaped interaction of families.

A non-authoritative parenting style has been shown to have an intergenerational association with continuities in depressed affect by Whitbeck, Hoyt, Simons, Conger, Elder, Lorenz and Huck (1992). They studied 451 families that had the target child in the seventh-grade (approximately 14 years old) and a sibling within four years of age. The method included two visits to the families in their homes: firstly, for interviews and questionnaires and then for videotaped family interactions. There were four scenarios of videotapes for each family. The first structured interaction task (35 minutes) involved all four members (mother, father, target child and sibling) in a discussion on parenting, school performance, household

chores and important family events. The second interaction task (15 minutes) involved all four members in a discussion of the three most problematic issues from the first task. The third task (15 minutes) involved the siblings in a discussion of their own relationship, their treatment by their parents, their relationships with friends and their goals and ambitions. The fourth task (30 minutes) involved the married couple in a discussion of their relationship, finances, discipline of children and their plans for the future.

Whitbeck et al. (1992) measured the present parenting practices of the generation two (G2) parents on the amount of trust, care, dissatisfaction, fault-finding and blame for parental problems displayed to the G3 adolescents. This was calculated from the self-reports of the G2 parents and G3 adolescents and the observer ratings of parent-child interaction.

The parental upbringing of the G2 parents was also measured on the amount of trust, care, dissatisfaction, fault-finding and blame for parental problems (Whitbeck et al., 1992). This was calculated from the self-report questionnaires of G2 parents on the way they were treated by their own G1 parents when they were about 14 years old.

Depressed affect for the parents was measured by self-report, spouse report and observer ratings from the marital interaction task (Whitbeck et al., 1992). Depressed affect for the target adolescents was measured by self-report, parent report and observer ratings.

Whitbeck et al. (1992) found that parental rejection by the grandparents was associated with depressed affect in the G2 parents. In turn, parental rejection by the G2 parents was associated with depressed affect in their adolescents. Thus continuities in this non-authoritative parenting style were associated with continuities in depressed affect to the third generation. Parental rejection with hostility and no warmth would be an authoritarian parenting style.

The strengths of Whitbeck et al.'s (1992) study included the large number of participating families and the comprehensive method of videotaping as well as home interviews and questionnaires. The well-designed videotape scenarios of family interaction covered all vital areas of relationships and the groupings allowed for discussion without constraints. The home interviews and questionnaires further covered possible problematic areas. Depressed affect for parents and adolescents were each from three sources which was a strength. The G2 parenting style was derived from videotape ratings and self-reports of

parents and adolescent which was a strength although a control group of authoritative parents would have balanced the rejecting parents. The G1 parental style was derived from five self-report questions on rejection during upbringing from the G2 parents which was a weakness in that more balanced questions should have been included. The latter may have affected the overall solidity of the research and the soundness of the conclusions.

The beliefs that adolescents have in parenting have been shown by Simons, Beaman, Conger and Chao (1992) to be associated with the parenting practices and beliefs of their own parents. Simons et al. investigated 451 two-parent families for the intergenerational transmission of parenting beliefs. Each family had a seventh-grade student (approximately 14 years old) and a sibling within four years of age. The families were visited twice in their homes: firstly, for interviews and questionnaires and then for videotapes of interaction tasks (as described in Whitbeck et al., 1992).

Simons et al. (1992) measured the present parenting practices of the G2 parents on the amount of supportive parenting and harsh discipline displayed to the G3 adolescents. Supportive parenting included the amount of concern, interest, love and acceptance, encouragement, help and reinforcement shown to the adolescent. Harsh discipline was how frequently the parent yelled, spanked, slapped or hit the child with an object. This was calculated from the self-report questionnaires of G2 parents and G3 target adolescents and the observer ratings of parent-child interaction.

The parenting style upbringing of the G2 parents was measured on the amount of supportive parenting and harsh discipline as above (Simons et al., 1992). This was calculated from the self-report questionnaires of G2 parents on the way they were treated by their own G1 parents when they were about 14 years old.

The parenting style beliefs of the G2 parents and the G3 adolescents were measured on the impact of parenting and discipline beliefs (Simons et al., 1992). The impact of parenting scale consisted of three items on the extent to which parental behaviours shaped child development. The discipline beliefs scale comprised six items on aspects of discipline. The parenting beliefs were calculated from the self report questionnaires of G2 parents and G3 adolescents.

Analysis of the data by Simons et al. (1992) revealed gender differences in the impact of parenting practices on the beliefs in parenting on the adolescents. The beliefs of the girls related to supportive parenting more than did boys, while the beliefs of the boys related to harsh disciplining more than did girls. Simons et al. noted that the adolescents' beliefs in parenting were associated with the parenting beliefs and practices of their parents. The parenting styles of warmth and control used during childhood had an impact on the parenting beliefs of adolescents. These could have been authoritative or non-authoritative parenting beliefs.

As critiqued in Whitbeck et al.'s (1992) study, the strengths of Simons et al.'s (1992) study included the large number of participants as well as the well-designed videotaping scenarios, home interviews and questionnaires. A strength was that the G2 parental style was derived from videotape ratings and self-reports of parents and adolescent. Supportive parenting equates with Baumrind's (1978) warmth but 'discipline' does not equate with Baumrind's control which was a weakness. This typology was also in the G1 parenting style derived from twelve self-report questions from the G2 parents. Parental beliefs of adolescents and parents were derived from the target children's and parents' questionnaires on the impact of supportive parenting (three items) and discipline practices (six items). Again, the weakness from the point of view of parenting styles of warmth and control is that the emphasis appeared to be on discipline as practiced by the G1 grandparents and the G2 parents. A more serious weakness from the point of view of adolescents' idealistic parental beliefs is that a more balanced view of warmth and control was not presented to them in their questionnaire. Although this research has some major strengths, it is restricted by the parental beliefs questionnaire. Conclusions about the adolescents' beliefs in particular could be suspect.

Observation

The longitudinal study reviewed was a re-analysis of data gathered in the past by observation, interviews and questionnaires.

Non-authoritative parenting that was associated with children's behaviour problems has been found to continue to the next generation by Elder, Liker and Cross (1984). These investigators analyzed data (1929-1945 and 1969-1970) from the longitudinal Berkeley Guidance Study on behaviour of parents and children during the Great Depression and later. This study was launched in 1928 and comprised every third birth in the city over 18 months.

The data (1929-1945) had annual information of 214 families. This included income, worklife of G1 father and mother and family consumption patterns as well as annual teacher ratings of the G2 children concerning academic and social behaviour. There were annual interviews with mother and child as well as staff assessments based on home observations and interviews.

Measures of parental behaviour included arbitrariness (inconsistency) and extreme modes of discipline (highly permissive or punitive) (Elder et al., 1984). These G1 parental measures from the 1929-1945 data were the parental upbringing measures for the G2 children. Three types of problem behaviour in the children (aggression, defiance and social withdrawal) were correlated with teacher perceptions of unhappiness and social rejection.

The 1969-1970 data had information provided by 182 of the original 214 child participants when they were 40 years of age. These G2 adults had psychological, medical and mental tests as well as interviews regarding educational, occupational and family histories. The adolescent children of the participants were also interviewed (n=120). These G3 adolescents were questioned about their G2 parents' amount of anger and loss of control as well as their own feelings of alienation.

The 1969-1970 parental style of the G2 adults was measured from the tests and interviews conducted at that time as well as two questions from the G3 adolescents (Elder et al., 1984).

Elder et al. (1984) re-analysed data from the 1936-1938 era when the children (G2) were seven to nine years old. This was after a time of Depression hardship when few of the fathers were fully employed. G1 parents who were arbitrary and used extreme discipline were associated with problem children who were aggressive and defiant. These parents were unaffectionate, controlling and hostile, and alienated from their children. Unaffectionate, controlling and hostile parenting would be authoritarian: a non-authoritative parenting style.

Data re-analysed from the 1969-1970 era revealed that the problem children had a more troubled life course than other children (Elder et al., 1984). Men who were aggressive and defiant as children were low on self-control and coping ability as adults. There was no significant relationship between the male problem children's behaviour as children and their subsequent parenting behaviour.

Women who were defiant and had tantrums as children had less self-control and coping ability as adults (Elder et al., 1984). These female problem children were rated by their own adolescents as being ill-tempered in their parenting behaviour. These G2 mothers were alienated from their own adolescents and were not accepting, loving or willing to listen. This behaviour would be authoritarian which is a non-authoritative parenting style of warmth and control. These ill-tempered mothers were likely to have alienated and undercontrolled adolescents. Problem behaviours of schoolage girls in the 1930s associated with the G1 parents' non-authoritative parenting styles have continued to the next generation, in that the girls were non-authoritative in their parenting behaviour in 1970 and had undercontrolled adolescents.

Elder et al.'s (1984) study was a re-analyses of data from the longitudinal Berkeley Guidance Study so consequently they were restricted by the studies already carried out. A major strength was the large number of participants and the comprehensive method of gathering the rich load of annual data over 16 years. A further strength was in the follow-up of the participant children in 1969-1970 when they were 40 years old ($n=182$) with a battery of tests and interviews. The strength of the G1 parental style of upbringing was that it was derived from the home observations, interviews and questionnaires. The weakness was that parental behaviour was measured on arbitrariness and extreme discipline with no emphasis on more positive parenting as in Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control typology. This could have been that the study was designed in the late 1920s or it may have been that the Great Depression hardships were affecting parenting. The present G2 parental style was derived from the self-reports of the participant children (G2) when 40 years old as well as two questions on amount of anger and loss of control from their own adolescent G3 children which was a major weakness. Observed interaction between these 40 year olds and their children would have balanced this research and given a more accurate picture of the present

parenting style as well as the adolescents' behaviour. The method of obtaining the G2 parental style data weakens this study and makes some of the conclusions suspect.

Interviews

The first study reviewed was of interviews with adults about the parenting practices of their childhood. The second study had separate interviews with grandmothers and mothers of young daughters as well as questionnaires.

The non-authoritative parental style of rejection in childhood has been shown by Crook, Raskin and Eliot (1981) to be associated with later depression in adulthood. They compared reports of early parental behaviour from 714 depressed patients (16 to 70 years old) with those provided by 387 nondepressed (control) adults. The depressed sample was drawn from ten hospitals while the control sample (matching for age, sex and social class) was drawn from the community. The clinically depressed patients had no chronic drug or alcohol addictions, mental deficiencies or physical disorders. Adult depression was based on the clinical reports from psychiatrists and psychologists in the ten hospitals.

Data on parental behaviour was from patient interviews with psychiatrists and psychologists about acceptance vs. rejection, autonomy vs. psychological control and firm control vs lax control (Crook et al., 1981). Social workers interviewed spouses, siblings and other relatives on the same three dimensions of the parental behaviour. Collation of this data yielded the parental style of upbringing of the adult depression patients.

Crook et al.'s (1981) analyses revealed that differences existed mainly in the type of reported parental rejection, such as derision, negative evaluation and withdrawal of affection. Maternal rejection was more closely associated with depression in adult daughters. In contrast, paternal rejection appeared to be more closely associated with depression in adult sons. Crook et al. posited that the thoughts of personal worthlessness and inferiority seen in depression had their origin in the early parent-child relationship. Parental rejection with derision, negative evaluation and withdrawal of affection would be an authoritarian style which is a non-authoritative parenting style of warmth and control. The non-authoritative parenting style of rejection in childhood was associated with later depression in adulthood.

Crook et al.'s (1981) study on parental upbringing had only one generation available but was very thorough. Strengths included the large number of depressed participants and their comparison with nondepressed controls. Also, the clinically depressed sample had no other disorders and the control sample were matched for age, sex and social class. A major strength was that while depressed patients were interviewed about their childhood by psychiatrists, their relatives and friends were interviewed by social workers in order to substantiate those childhood recollections. As well, the parental behaviour typology was balanced as it included acceptance vs. rejection and firm control vs lax control which equated with Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control. This well-designed study was solidly based and the conclusions are sound.

Parenting styles of affection and restriction have been shown by Vermulst, de Brock and van Zutphen (1991) to be transmitted through families. They examined 55 grandmother-mother dyads about child-rearing practices using interviews and questionnaires. The participants were grandmothers (52 to 81 years old), mothers (28 to 43 years old) and their specific daughters (7 to 10 years old). The grandmothers lived separately from the mothers and were interviewed separately from the mothers. The method comprised of an interview at home in two sections. The first section consisted of a demographic questionnaire that was completed by the interviewer. The second section had several structured questionnaires that were explained by the interviewer for the participant to complete later.

During their interview, the G1 grandmothers were asked to recall the time their G2 daughters were ten years of age (Vermulst et al., 1991). These questions were framed in the past tense. Parenting practices were based on the recall of the amount of affection and restriction shown in the past by the G1 grandmothers to their daughters. The parenting style upbringing of the G2 mothers was based on this self-report questionnaire of the grandmothers.

The present G2 mothers were asked to answer the questions according to their present state, i.e., parenting their schoolage daughters (Vermulst et al., 1991). Parenting was assessed on the self-report of the dimensions of affection and restriction. The present parenting style of the G2 mothers was based on this self-report questionnaire.

Analyses by Vermulst et al. (1991) revealed an inter-generational transmission of parenting models. Each generation was influenced by the previous generation's parenting style. Affection and restriction equate with the parenting style dimensions of warmth and control. The parenting styles in this research were transmitted from one generation to another within the families and could have been either authoritative or non-authoritative.

Vermulst et al. (1991) had 55 families available with three generations for their study of parenting continuities but chose to use self-reports which was a major weakness. The G1 parenting style of upbringing was derived from the grandmothers' self-reports, when the G2 mothers could have been questioned about their recollections as well. The G2 parenting style was derived from the mothers' self-reports, when there could have been observed interaction with their ten year olds as well. The strength of this study was in the 55 families and the fact that the grandmothers and mothers lived apart. Another strength was that parenting was measured on the dimensions of affection and restriction which equates with Baumrind's (1978) warmth and control. These strengths do not outweigh the weaknesses of unsubstantiated self-reports in this study. The conclusions would appear to be suspect.

Upbringing and Beliefs: Summary of Results

An upbringing of non-authoritative parenting in childhood has resulted in negative outcomes in adulthood in weaker studies and in more solid studies. In Crook et al.'s (1981) excellent study, adult depression was associated with parental rejection in childhood. Whitbeck et al.'s (1992) study found that both parental rejection and depression were continued through to the third generation. Elder et al.'s (1984) reanalysis of past data, some of which was suspect, showed that authoritarian parenting was associated with children's behaviour problems through to the second generation. A weaker study by Vermulst et al. (1991) showed a similarity in the parenting styles of grandmothers and mothers that could be non-authoritative or authoritative.

Similarities in beliefs in parenting practices were found in a suspect study by Simons et al. (1992) of parents and their adolescents. These beliefs could be authoritative and non-authoritative.

Upbringing and Beliefs: Summary of Methodology

Again, three issues need to be addressed: the balance between parental warmth and control, the balance between children's positive and negative behaviour, and the methodology of the study

To obtain the past parenting style, concurrent studies used interviews and questionnaires of the adults which were the only practical methods. In an excellent study that compared the health of two large adult groups, family and friends were also questioned about the participant's upbringing. Although this study specifically explored parental rejection, the past parenting criteria was well balanced between warmth and control.

Studies on continuity compared past parenting styles with the present parenting styles. In a suspect study that reanalysed past data on parenting and child behaviour, only non-authoritative styles and problem behaviour were reported as measurements were on negative parenting and negative behaviour. When these problem children were adults, they were given an array of tests and interviews, but none about their present parenting. For this, their own adolescents were questioned about negative parental styles and their own problems. Observation of parent-child interaction would have given more dependable data than the biased questioning.

In another study that did not take the opportunity to observe present parent-child interaction, grandmothers and mothers were interviewed about their own parenting styles. Not only did this weak study fail to observe present parental interaction, there was no questioning of the mothers about their own perceptions of their upbringing.

In a study of the continuities of parental rejection and depression, the parental upbringing criteria was biased on about rejection. Combined with the lack of a control group, this flawed an otherwise comprehensive study where the present parenting style was obtained from videotaped interaction of parent-child dyads rather than interviews or questionnaires.

Parental beliefs research was essentially concerned with continuities in parenting practices. The criteria for both present parenting practices shown in videotaped interaction and for the parental belief questionnaire was supportive parenting and harsh discipline. This imbalance between warmth and control weakened the study.

Most studies on parenting style of upbringing and of beliefs have been concurrent and have used questionnaires or interviews or both. The present research examines the impact of parental upbringing and parental beliefs on preschoolers' emotional language and emotional behaviour. Both parental upbringing and parental beliefs are obtained through questionnaires. Parental criteria is based on Baumrind's (1978) typology of warmth and control.

It is clear from the foregoing studies that the amount of warmth and control in the parenting styles remembered or perceived by adults and adolescents from their upbringing have had a later effect on their emotional behaviour and wellbeing. Also, this perceived childhood upbringing has had a relationship to the parental beliefs of adults and adults. In this way parenting styles of warmth and control have had a continuity from one generation to another.

Overall Summary of Literature Review

The theories of Harré (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) and Vygotsky (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) emphasise the social construction of emotions and emotional language in children. For Harré, a child learns to label emotions of self and others from the mother who also gives the causes and consequences of them. The mother is part of a culture or a particular group within it and passes on the norms of the culture. In Vygotsky's interactionist view, speech about emotions is transformed from the social or interpersonal to the private or intrapersonal. The interpersonal speech with more capable people is usually ahead of the child's independent performance but within her/his zone of proximal development (ZPD). The interpersonal speech is internalised with motivation over time to become intrapersonal within the child.

The results of longitudinal studies on preschoolers' emotional language either support or are consistent with the view of the social construction of emotions through interaction with mothers. Preschoolers' emotional language and behaviour was socialised by their mothers over eight months. The earlier gender-related speech of the mothers about emotions

was reflected in the gender differences in the speech of the preschoolers, six months later and 30 months later. The mothers' earlier evaluative speech (including emotional) was reflected in their preschoolers' speech elicited by experimenters over one year later. The elicitation styles the mothers used earlier in the research had a relationship with the different density of information and length (including emotion words) of the children's narratives elicited by researchers fifteen months later. This emotional language research supported or was consistent with the social construction of emotions but the mothers' influence was manifested in many different ways.

Parenting style dimensions are composed of authoritative with warmth and control, and non-authoritative with only warmth or control or neither. Authoritative parenting styles are related to children's positive emotional behaviour while non-authoritative styles to children's negative emotional behaviour (Baumrind, 1967, 1971, 1973; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). This has been confirmed by further research with preschoolers, schoolchildren and adolescents in concurrent and longitudinal studies. Non-authoritative parenting styles remembered from childhood have been related to adults' mental health. Intergenerational continuities have been found in non-authoritative parenting associated with negative emotional behaviour and health in adolescence and adulthood. Also, the authoritative and non-authoritative parenting style dimensions in childhood have affected adolescents' beliefs in parenting practices. In the longitudinal studies the mothers have had an influence on their children's emotional behaviour consistent with the view of the social construction of emotion.

Preschoolers' emotional language has been shown to have an association with their mothers consistent with the view of social construction of emotions. The emotional behaviour of preschoolers, schoolage children and adolescents has been shown to have an association with the amount of warmth and control manifested in the mothers' parenting style dimensions. Again, this is consistent with the view of social construction of emotions.

CHAPTER II: RATIONALE, AIMS AND HYPOTHESES

Rationale

Preschoolers' emotional language has been shown to have an association with their mothers consistent with the view of the social construction of emotions. The emotional behaviour of preschoolers, schoolage children and adolescents has been shown to have an association with the amount of warmth and control manifested in the mothers' parenting style dimensions. Again, this is consistent with the view of the social construction of emotions.

Mothers have been associated with their preschoolers' emotional language and mothers' parenting style dimensions have been associated with their children's emotional behaviour. The question that arises from this is:

‘Would the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control have an association with their children's emotional language?’

The focal point in the research described in this thesis was the investigation of a method of influence by the mothers that was common to both the emotional behaviour and emotional language of their preschoolers.

Emotional language in children is socially constructed, according to the theories of Harré (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) and Vygotsky (1978; 1986, 1987, 1994). This is achieved through interaction with a more capable adult (usually the mother) who labels the emotions of self and of others. The interpersonal, in interaction with the more capable adult, then becomes the intrapersonal within the child. Emotional behaviour is also socially constructed, according to the same theories as well as in the same manner with a more capable adult or especially the mother.

Mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control have been shown to affect their preschoolers' emotional behaviour (Baumrind, 1967, 1971, 1973; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). However, there appeared to be no empirical research that showed any relationship between preschoolers' emotional language and parenting styles of warmth and control.

Emotional behaviour in children has been shown to be socially constructed by the amounts of warmth and control in their mothers' parenting styles dimensions (Baumrind,

1967, 1971, 1973, 1978; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Longitudinal research has established a relationship between the authoritative style dimension and positive emotional behaviour as well as between nonauthoritative style dimensions and children's negative emotional behaviour (see Chapter I). The optimal parenting style dimension was authoritative with more warmth and more control (Baumrind, 1978).

An association has been shown between the mothers' parenting style dimensions of warmth and control and their preschoolers' emotional behaviour. This was consistent with the view of the social construction of emotions in that each parenting style dimension characterises a particular group within the culture which is in accordance with Harré's (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) theory (Harré, 1994, personal communication). This research aimed to replicate this and further to assess any association between the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control and their preschoolers' emotional language. Emotional language in children is socially constructed, according to the theories of Harré (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) and Vygotsky (1978; 1986, 1987, 1994). Research findings have supported these theories, in that associations consistent with the theories have been shown between mothers and their preschoolers' emotional language (see Chapter I).

Research has shown a relationship between negative emotional behaviour and parenting style dimensions of less warmth or less control remembered from childhood upbringing (see Chapter I). Further, a relationship has been shown between parental style dimensions of upbringing and parental beliefs (see Chapter I). Thus the second goal of this research was to assess any relationship between the mothers' parental upbringing and/or their parental beliefs and their preschoolers' emotional language or their emotional behaviour.

To achieve these goals, preschoolers were chosen as participants as this period of development was an important time to observe their emotional development (see Chapter I). Also, preschoolers probably spend most of their time with one or other parent. Mothers were chosen as participants with their children for two reasons. Firstly, research has shown that mothers and fathers speak to their children in the same way about emotions (Kuebli & Fivush, 1992). Secondly, the financial and time constraints on this research would not have

allowed for the increase in sample numbers necessary if both mothers and fathers were participants.

Because the most effective studies on parenting styles of warmth and control have been longitudinal (see Chapter I, methodology of parenting styles), the research was longitudinal, with one year between the two times. This was to establish any relationship between the mothers' parenting style dimensions at Time One and the preschoolers' emotional language and emotional behaviour at Time Two. Two age samples were chosen to give a broader representation. At 30 months, the younger preschoolers were already able to converse about their own and others' emotions (Dunn et al., 1987). The older preschoolers of 48 months were 60 months by the end of the research and therefore were unlikely to be affected by school.

Parenting style dimensions of warmth and control were measured in three ways: observed, upbringing and beliefs. Firstly, the observed parenting style of warmth and control was based on the interaction of the mother-child dyads in difficult tasks that was videotaped in the laboratory. The most effective studies on parenting styles of warmth and control have involved mother-child interaction that was videotaped or observed (see Chapter I, methodology of parenting styles and emotional behaviour). The observed parenting styles of warmth and control were coded in accordance with Cowan and Cowan's (1992b) manual of parent-style ratings which was based on Baumrind's (1978) typology of warmth and control.

Secondly, the mothers' parenting style of upbringing was measured by a questionnaire (Lamborn et al., 1991) based on Baumrind's (1978) typology of warmth and control. Their questionnaire was designed for adolescents but adapted for adults in this research (see Appendix A). Although memories of upbringing may not be strictly accurate, it was not practicable to include grandmothers in the present research. However, it was the way the mothers perceived they were brought up that was important for this study. Most of the studies on past parenting styles of upbringing have used questionnaires (see Chapter 1, methodology of parenting styles: upbringing and beliefs). Studies that were more suspect had questionnaires with an imbalance between warmth and control but the questionnaire in the present study is balanced between warmth and control.

Thirdly, the parenting style beliefs of the mother were measured by a questionnaire designed by the author (see Appendix B). This was based on Cowan and Cowan's (1992b) 'parent style' ratings which in turn were based on Baumrind's (1978) typology of warmth and control. The only study on parental beliefs (see Chapter I, methodology of parenting styles: upbringing and beliefs) used a questionnaire on supportive parenting and harsh discipline which gave an imbalance of warmth and control. In the present research, the parental beliefs questionnaire has a balance between warmth and control.

The preschoolers' emotional language was taken from three mother-child narratives discussing past emotional experiences of the preschoolers. Three mother-child narratives were requested in this research to combat any unfamiliarity with the medium. The emotional language of preschoolers had three aspects: positivity, uniqueness and amount. The first, positivity, was determined by subtracting negative emotional language from the amount of positive language. The second, uniqueness, was the vocabulary of the emotional language used by the child. The third, amount, was the proportion of emotional language used by the child in relation to other topics or language. Emotions have 'figure[d] prominently' in narratives (Oatley, 1993, p.75) and more so if the subject was past emotional experiences (see Chapter I, methodology of emotional language). These narratives were audiotaped by the mothers in their own time and in their own homes. Previous research has shown that personal narratives about past experiences were elicited by mothers in their own homes using audiotapes (see Chapter 1, preschoolers' emotional language: summary of methodology). Experimenters were present as well in some studies but in the present research mothers were left to choose their own time without the intrusion of the experimenter.

The preschoolers' emotional behaviour was measured from the interaction of the mother-child dyads in difficult tasks that was videotaped in the laboratory. The most effective studies on children's emotional behaviour have had mother-child interaction that was videotaped or observed (see Chapter I, methodology of parenting styles and emotional behaviour). The emotional behaviour (positive and negative) was coded in accordance with Cowan and Cowan's (1992a) 'child style' ratings. Positivity of emotional behaviour was determined by subtracting negative emotional behaviour from the amount of positive behaviour.

This study goes beyond previous research on parenting styles of warmth and control in five main ways, viz.:

- (1) Exploring the relationship between preschoolers' emotional language and the mothers' observed parenting styles of warmth and control.
- (2) Exploring the relationship between preschoolers' emotional language and the mothers' remembered parenting styles of warmth and control from upbringing.
- (3) Exploring the relationship between preschoolers' emotional language and the mothers' beliefs in parenting styles of warmth and control.
- (4) Exploring the relationship between preschoolers' emotional behaviour and the mothers' remembered parenting styles of warmth and control from upbringing.
- (5) Exploring the relationship between preschoolers' emotional behaviour and the mothers' beliefs in parenting styles of warmth and control.

No variables were manipulated in this research.

Aims and Hypotheses

The first aim of this research was to assess the relationship between the preschoolers' emotional language and their mothers' observed parenting styles of warmth and control. A minor aim was to replicate previous research by examining the relationship between the preschoolers' emotional behaviour and their mothers' parenting styles. The second aim of this research was to assess any relationship between the mothers' parental upbringing or their parental beliefs and their preschoolers' emotional language or their emotional behaviour.

The hypotheses were based on the established positive relationship between the positivity of children's emotional behaviour and the authoritative parenting style with more warmth and more control. These hypotheses will be presented under two sections: emotional language and emotional behaviour. Also, Time One and Time Two will be within each of the sections.

Emotional Language

The preschoolers' emotional language had three aspects: positivity, uniqueness and amount. The sources of the parenting styles of warmth and control were observation, upbringing and beliefs.

Time One

A relationship was expected between any of the three sources of parenting styles of warmth and control of the mothers and any of the three aspects of emotional language of the preschoolers.

Hypothesis I. That, at Time One, there would be a positive relationship between the emotional language of the preschoolers and (a) the authoritative parenting style of the mothers, and (b) the warmth and control together of the mothers. In contrast, that there would be a negative relationship between the emotional language of the preschoolers and (a) the non-authoritative parenting style of the mothers. or (b) the lack of warmth or of control of the mothers.

Time Two

The relationship hypothesised at Time One was expected to increase over time.

Hypothesis II. That, at Time Two, there would be a positive directional increase in the emotional language of the preschoolers from: (a) the authoritative parenting style of the mothers at Time One, and (b) the warmth and control together of the mothers at Time One. In contrast, that there would be a negative directional decrease in the emotional language of the preschoolers at Time Two from: (a) the non-authoritative parenting style of the mothers at Time One, or (b) the lack of warmth or of control of the mothers at Time One.

Emotional Behaviour

The preschoolers' emotional behaviour was a continuum of positivity. The sources of the parenting styles of warmth and control were observation, upbringing and beliefs.

Time One

A relationship was expected between the positivity of emotional behaviour of the preschoolers and any of the three sources of parenting styles of warmth and control of their mothers.

Hypothesis III. That, at Time One, there would be a positive relationship between the emotional behaviour of the preschoolers and (a) the authoritative parenting style of the mothers, and (b) the warmth and control together of the mothers. In contrast, that there would be a negative relationship between the emotional behaviour of the preschoolers and (a) the non-authoritative parenting style of the mothers. or (b) the lack of warmth or of control of the mothers.

Time Two

The relationship hypothesised at Time One was expected to increase over time.

Hypothesis IV. That, at Time Two, there would be a positive directional increase in the emotional behaviour of the preschoolers from: (a) the authoritative parenting style of the mothers at Time One, and (b) the warmth and control together of the mothers at Time One. In contrast, that there would be a negative directional decrease in the emotional behaviour of the preschoolers at Time Two from: (a) the non-authoritative parenting style of the mothers at Time One, or (b) the lack of warmth or of control of the mothers at Time One.

CHAPTER III: GENERAL METHOD

Participants

Participants comprised two samples: a younger sample of mother-child dyads with children aged 28-32 months (average 30 months) and an older sample of mother-child dyads with children aged 46-50 months (average 48 months). There were 30 girls and 30 boys in both the younger and the older age samples.

Participants in the research typified the range of social characteristics found amongst New Zealand preschoolers and their mothers. For example, within each age group, half the mothers were of a higher socio-economic status and half of a lower status. About half were from the inner city, a quarter from the outer suburbs and the rest were rural. Within the two socio-economic groups, half the mothers had daughters and half had sons. The mothers had varied relationship backgrounds ranging from single to married, including separated, divorced and/or living with a partner. The number of children within the families varied from one to six - some of whom were step- and/or half-siblings. Also, the education of the mothers varied from two years at high school to masters degrees at university. As well, some mothers were at home full-time while others worked from part- to full-time in occupations that ranged from cleaners to medical practitioners. Some preschoolers were at home nearly all of their time and some were in full-time daycare centres while others attended kindergartens or playcentres for varying times each week day.

The dyads were recruited from kindergartens, play-centres and day-care centres as well as from an item about the research in the daily newspaper. The mothers were told that the research was on the development of children's emotions and given a brief idea of what was involved. For instance, they were told that the research comprised a short interview in their own home, that some questionnaires were to be completed and that a conversation with their child about past emotional experiences was to be audiotaped at home. Also, a session of the mother and child completing two tasks was to be videotaped in the laboratory. The volunteers were given a canvassing letter (see Appendix P) with information about the time involvement, the procedures, the researchers' qualifications, the approval of the University Ethics Committee, the confidentiality of the research and the planned raffle. A raffle for

three small amounts of cash was held after testing was completed as a token of appreciation of the participants' involvement in the research.

Measures

The dependent variables were the children's emotional behaviour and emotional language. The independent variables were the mothers' present parenting styles of warmth and control, the mothers' own upbringing of warmth and control and the mothers' beliefs of warmth and control.

Questionnaires

Mother's Own Upbringing of Warmth and Control

A self-report measure was used to explore the mother's perception of the parenting style of warmth and control used in her own upbringing (see Appendix A). This was adapted for adults from Lamborn et al.'s (1991) questionnaire for adolescents' (14 to 18 years) perception of their parents' parenting style. For this research, participants were asked to state how they perceived their upbringing during their later teenage years (16 to 18 years). The questionnaire had two factors: parental warmth and involvement, which equates to 'warmth' and parental strictness and supervision, which equates to 'control'. Lamborn et al. used this measure to test Maccoby and Martin's (1983) revision of Baumrind's (1978) conceptual framework of warmth and control.

Mother's Beliefs of Warmth and Control

A self-report questionnaire was used to investigate the mother's beliefs about parenting style behaviours (see Appendix B). This measure of five items was designed by the investigator and was based on Baumrind's (1978) parenting styles of warmth and control typology: Warmth was 'responsiveness to child', 'warmth with the child' and 'lack of anger at child', while control was 'structure' and 'limit setting'. The five points in each of these items were based on the observable behaviours in Cowan and Cowan's (1992b) 'parenting

style' ratings extension of Baumrind's typology. Although some of these behaviours were less than optimal, each point was presented in a positive manner. For instance, 'responsiveness to child' in Cowan and Cowan's parental style ratings was from:

(5) Excessive responsiveness (parent responds too much, too early, and/or for too long; appears as if parent is unable to let child function independently or experience distress of any kind) to

(1) Very low responsiveness (parent virtually doesn't respond; if parent does respond to child's needs it is extremely ineffective because timing of intervention is completely off, i.e., too early, too late, or for too long; it appears that child is floundering much of the time).

For 'responsiveness to child' in the beliefs scale, the equivalent choices range from:

(5) 'Immediately at the first sign of need, and help child over all the difficult parts' to

(1) 'Allow the child to work at their own pace, and solve their own problems'.

Tasks

Videotape Tasks

These involved two types of tasks, namely: matrix classification and block construction.

Matrix classification task. The matrix tasks were similar to those used by Pratt, Kerig, Cowan and Cowan (1988) that they had adapted from Block and Block (1980). The tasks involved double classification problems of colour and of shape.

Time One. The younger preschoolers had three tasks: two wooden frameboards with pegs and a wooden pegboard with 25 pegs (see Appendix C). The older preschoolers had two tasks. The first was a block box divided into two compartments with four coloured template lids that could cover one compartment (see Appendix D). The blocks were in different shapes and coloured that fitted through each template lid in a certain way. The second task was a two-layer frame wooden jigsaw.

Time Two. The younger sample had two tasks. The first was the block box with a template lid (see Appendix D) as used by the older age sample at Time One, but with less blocks. The second had six different sets of small, square pictures with five in a set. Each picture was glued on a square of cardboard. The sets graduated from the smallest picture to the largest picture. The smallest pictures were glued to a large cardboard sheet. The child's task was to place the matching pictures on the sheet from the smallest to the largest. The older preschoolers had two matrix classification tasks with the first being the block box with a template lid (see Appendix D) used at Time One. The second matrix task was a four-layer frame jigsaw.

Block construction task. This task was similar to the model-copying task used by Pratt et al. (1988) that was based on the model-copying task used by Wood and Middleton (1975). The task required the child to build a construction with sets of blocks. The construction was to be identical to a coloured three-dimensional drawing. There were three boxes of blocks with three graded sizes of blocks packed in rows in each box. The blocks were rectangular in shape and had the same length and width, but were small, medium or large in depth. The boxes and blocks were red, blue and green.

Time One. For the model of the younger age preschoolers, see Appendix E, and for the older preschoolers' block building model, see Appendix F.

Time Two. For the younger preschoolers' block building task, see Appendix G and for the older preschoolers, see Appendix H.

Audiotape Task

The more effective studies on preschoolers' emotional language involved mother-child narratives audiotaped in their own homes about the preschoolers' past emotional experiences (see Chapter I, methodology of preschoolers' emotional language). Three narratives were requested in this research to combat any unfamiliarity with the medium. The mother was asked to elicit three narratives from her child about salient emotional experiences. These were defined as instances of talk about events within the past two to six months that involved the child's emotions. Each mother was verbally instructed to encourage her child to speak of

how the child had felt during those experiences. An instruction sheet (see Appendix I) with the above instructions and an audiotape were left with the mother. If necessary, the mothers were supplied with a tape recorder.

Videotape Coding

The videotapes were coded for: the preschoolers' emotional behaviour and the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control.

Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour

The emotional behaviour was coded according to Cowan and Cowan's (1992a) 'child style' ratings. Cowan and Cowan's ratings were for the overall rating at the end of a session or at the 'macro' level. This was adapted to be coded at each 15 seconds or at the 'micro' level (see Appendix J). The three positive behaviours targeted were warmth (less coldness), enthusiasm and happiness, and the four negative emotional behaviours were anger, anxiety, sadness and frustration. Each behaviour had a five-point scale for classification. For example, the range of happiness was from:

- (5) Excessive happiness (euphoric, 'high', almost giddy or hysterical, not obviously reacting happily to specific events; interferes with task accomplishments) to
- (1) Very low happiness (child gives no clear sign of pleasure, enjoyment or contentment).

A continuum of the 'positivity' of emotional behaviour was from the score of positive behaviours minus the score of negative behaviours.

Mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control

The mother's observable parenting style dimensions of warmth and control were coded according to Cowan and Cowan's (1992b) 'parenting style' ratings. Cowan and Cowan's ratings were for the overall rating at the end of a session or at the 'macro' level. This was adapted to be coded at each 15 seconds or at the 'micro' level (see Appendix K).

Cowan and Cowan extended Baumrind's (1978) typology of warmth and control as well as devising qualities and observable behaviours which were coded on a scale ranging from five to one. Warmth was measured by the variables of 'warmth with the child less coldness', 'responsiveness to child' and 'lack of anger at child'. Control was measured by the variables of 'limit setting' and 'structure'. For example, the range of limit setting was from:

(5) Excessive limit setting (parent's adherence to limits and limit setting is more important than their relationship with their child; parent requires obedience and compliance at all times) to

(1) Very low limit setting (parent's limit setting is not visible; parent permits virtually any type of behaviour from the child).

This coding yielded two continuous variables, one for 'warmth' and one for 'control'.

Selection of Participants

The selection of participants for the younger and older preschoolers from the non-random samples was on the basis of their parenting style. These were authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved, as in Maccoby and Martin (1983). First, the mean of 'warmth' was calculated to four decimals and then the mean of 'control'. Mothers were classed as *authoritative* if they were above the mean for both warmth and control. Mothers, who were below the mean in warmth and above the mean for control, were deemed *authoritarian*. Mothers were classed as *permissive* if they were above the mean in warmth and below the mean in control. Mothers were deemed *uninvolved* if they were below the mean in both warmth and control. Those mothers who were authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved were deemed 'non-authoritative'.

Audiotape Coding

Although each mother was asked to elicit narratives from her child about past emotional experiences, some of the narratives contained present tense and/or future tense sentences. These were deleted from both the child's and the mother's conversations before the coding of the amount of emotional language. The narratives of the child and the mother

were coded separately within their audiotape for: emotional language and the narrative elicitation style of the mother.

Emotional Language

Emotional language was coded under positivity, uniqueness and amount.

Positivity. All words referring to both positive and negative emotional states or reactions were counted for the mother and child independently, as per Fivush (1989). Emotion words were taken from Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson and O'Connor's (1987) list of 135 emotion prototype words (see Appendix L). The emotion prototype words were deemed the most specific for love, joy, anger, sadness, fear and surprise. Examples from their prototype words were 'love', 'liking', 'hate' and 'sadness'.

In addition to the prototype emotion words, positive and negative emotion words 'per se' were included in the emotional language, following a recommendation by Peterson (1992, personal communication). An emotion word per se is one that describes an emotion or an emotional state, but is not on the prototype list. A list of 158 emotion words per se (see Appendix M) was compiled from the words not included in Shaver et al.'s final list of emotions and from other sources including Bretherton and Beeghly (1982) and from the narratives in the pilot study for this research. This list of emotion words per se was expanded to include any word that the coders agreed conveyed an emotion or an emotional reaction. Examples from the emotion words per se list are 'fun', 'feel good', 'cry' and 'feel bad'. For each participant, the total number of emotion terms mentioned in each narrative was tallied, as well as the valence of the term as either positive or negative (see Appendix N). A variable for the positivity of emotional language was formed from number of positive terms minus number of negative terms.

Uniqueness. The total amount of emotional language used by the mother or the child does not necessarily reflect the range of emotional language used. To obtain this range, a list was compiled of the 'unique' number of emotional terms used by the child, and the mother,

over all the three narratives, as per Kuebli et al. (1995). This yielded a total for the ‘unique’ positive emotional terms as well as the negative ones for both the participants.

Amount. A coding scheme for units of information was adapted from Fivush (1991) (see Appendix O). This measured all the types of information given in the narratives by both the child and the mother that the next speaker could refer to in conversation. Fivush (1991) used person, location, object, activity and attribute in her research. For the present research, ‘attribute’ has been renamed ‘quality’. Emotional language or ‘feeling’ was added to Fivush’s five units to ascertain the percentage of times it is mentioned in comparison to other units of information. The adapted unique units of information measure any person (e. g., “Do you remember **Aunt Jane**?” “I phoned **Grandma** last month.”), location (e. g., “Remember when we went to the **beach**?” “You went to the **park** with Daddy.”), object (e. g., “Then we took off our **shoes**.” “The **cat** was at our place.”), activity (e. g., “I **ran** around and around.” “You **saw** Father Christmas yesterday.”), quality (e. g., “It was a **big** dog.” “You thought it was **very** scary.”), or feeling (e. g., “I **love** my Daddy.” “I thought you looked **happy**.”). The totals for the six units of information (person, location, object, activity, quality and feeling) were collated for each of the three narratives of the child. The percentage of ‘feeling’ or emotional language was calculated separately and overall. The same procedure was used for the mother’s units of information.

Narrative Elicitation Styles

Elicitation styles that were high in elaboration or extension have been variously termed ‘elaborative’ (Fivush & Fromhoff, 1988; Fivush, 1991; Fivush & Reese, 1992; Reese & Fivush, 1993), or ‘topic-extenders’ (McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Peterson & McCabe, 1992). Those elicitation styles that are low in elaboration or extension have been named ‘repetitive’ (Fivush & Fromhoff, 1988; Fivush, 1991; Fivush & Reese, 1992; Reese & Fivush, 1993). McCabe and Peterson (1991) found that low ‘topic-extenders’ were either ‘repetitive’ or ‘topic-switchers’. The two main elicitation styles in this research were termed ‘high extenders’ and ‘low extenders’. The mother’s narrative elicitation style was defined by collating her consequences (or responses) from her child’s emotional language; and also, from

her own previous sentence containing emotional language. A coding scheme for the narrative elicitation style was devised on the recommendation of Peterson (1992, personal communication). This measured consequences (or responses) of the mother to the utterances of both the child and the mother that included emotional language (see Appendix N).

Preschoolers' narratives. The four possible consequences by the mother were: mother ignore, mother repeat, mother elaborate, or mother adds content. 'Elaborate' is when the mother attempts to extend her child's utterance. 'Adds content' is when the mother mentions another thing that happened in the context of the same emotional word. Note the following example:

Child: I was **happy**, not **sad** any more.

Mother: Why would you be **sad**?

'Happy' was coded a positive emotion word that was 'ignored' by the mother. 'Sad' was a negative emotion word that was elaborated by the mother. High extenders provided more elaboration and added more content while low extenders were more likely to ignore or repeat their children's statements.

Mothers' narratives. The consequences for the mother to her own previous sentence containing emotional language were: abandon, repeat, extend self, or extend child. Note the following example:

Mother: Did you **feel good** about our old house?

Child: Yea.

Mother: Did you **feel good** about our new house? PAUSE Did you get a birthday card?

The first 'feel good' was coded as a positive emotion word per se that was an 'extension of self' by the mother in her subsequent sentence. The second 'feel good' was charted as a positive emotion word per se that was an 'abandoned' by the mother in her subsequent sentence after the pause. High extenders extended self and child more while low extenders were more likely to abandon or repeat their previous sentence containing emotional content. The calculation of high and low extenders from the mothers' narratives produced a skewed

result, with not enough in the high extenders group for statistical analysis. Consequently, the high and low extenders calculated from the children's narratives were used in analyses.

Procedure

All data was collected over a period of six months, since children were taken within two months of their target date of 30 months for the younger sample and 48 months for the older sample. The mother-child dyads were visited in their own home for approximately 15 minutes for the mother's demographical details and for the mother's signed consent to take part in the research. This was in the form of a consent letter (see Appendix Q) which repeated the information in the recruiting letter with space for signatures of the participant and the author. Two self-report questionnaires (Mothers' own upbringing of warmth and control, and Mothers' beliefs of warmth and control) were left with the mother to complete at her convenience. Also, an audiotape and written instructions (see Audiotape task) were left with the mother for her to audiotape the conversations with her child.

The mothers returned the audiotapes and questionnaires when they attended the videotaping session in the Psychology Department at the University of Canterbury with their children. The audiotapes were marked with the dyad code number and shelved.

For the videotaping session, the camera room contained a long, low table with the task material on it. There were two low chairs on one side with enough space between them for the mother and child to move around freely. The camera was fixed on the wall opposite the table, and the microphones hung from the ceiling. The mother and child were alone during the videotaping. All children were given unfamiliar matrix tasks to complete as many times as they could within ten minutes. The mother was instructed to help her child as much or as little as she would with a new game at home. When they were ready, interaction was videotaped for ten minutes. After a break of five minutes, they were given three boxes of blocks and a coloured illustration of a block model. They were instructed to copy the model and when completed to replace the blocks in the boxes before reconstructing the model. Again, the mother was instructed to help her child as much or as little as she would with a new game at home. As before, interaction was videotaped for ten minutes.

The interaction of mother and child was coded to obtain the emotional behaviour of the child and the mother's parenting style of warmth and control.

The selection of participants for the younger and older participants was on the basis of the observed parenting style dimensions of the mothers. When the selection process was completed, the relevant audiotapes were transcribed and coded.

A 'thank-you' letter (see Appendix R) was sent to all the participants notifying them of raffle results and reminding them of the approximate date of the last half of the research.

Twelve months after Time One, the procedure was repeated (except for recruitment). Again, the data was collected over a period of six months, since children were taken within two months of their target date of 42 months for the younger preschoolers and 60 months for the older preschoolers.

A further 'thank-you' letter (see Appendix S) was sent to all the participants notifying them of raffle results and giving them an approximate date for a report on the findings of the research.

CHAPTER IV: STUDY OF YOUNGER PRESCHOOLERS

Method

Participants

Selection and Randomization

The selection of participants for the younger preschoolers from the non-random sample followed the method for 'Selection of Participants' (see Chapter III: General Method).

Numbers of mothers with different observed parenting style dimensions in the non-random 30 months-old sample of dyads (60) were:

Authoritative	29.
Authoritarian	13.
Permissive	12.
Uninvolved	5.
(unused)	1

Eleven authoritative, 12 authoritarian and 11 permissive mothers were randomly selected from the three groups. This resulted in 39 mothers, as in the following observed parenting style dimensions:

Authoritative	11.
Authoritarian	12.
Permissive	11.
Uninvolved	5.

Procedure

The procedure followed the general method in Chapter III. This included categorising the already selected 39 participants into their different parental styles of upbringing, and the different parental styles of beliefs.

The procedure was as described for the observed parenting styles, as in 'Selection of participants'.

Mothers' Own Parental Style Upbringing of Warmth and Control

Numbers of mothers with different upbringing parenting style dimensions among the 39 participants were:

Authoritative	17.
Authoritarian	8.
Permissive	5.
Uninvolved	9.

Mothers' Own Parental Style Beliefs of Warmth and Control

Numbers of mothers with different beliefs in parenting style dimensions among the 39 participants were:

Authoritative	15.
Authoritarian	12.
Permissive	8.
Uninvolved	4.

Reliability

Inter-rater Reliability for Videotaping

All the videotaped interaction of the mothers and children was coded by the experimenter. In addition, 25% of the videotapes were randomly classified by an independent coder. Inter-rater reliability was computed by the formula of: $\text{Agreements} / (\text{Agreements} + \text{Disagreements}) \times 100/1$ (with agreements plus disagreements being all the possibilities for agreement).

Preschoolers' emotional behaviour. For the preschoolers' emotional behaviour at Time One, the inter-rater reliability was 88.52% (Cohen's kappa .86). At Time Two, the reliability for the coding was 95.12% (Cohen's kappa .94).

Mothers' observed parenting styles of warmth and control. For the mothers' parenting style behaviour at Time One, the inter-rater reliability was 96.81% (Cohen's kappa .96). At Time Two, the inter-rater reliability of the coding was 99.58% (kappa .99).

Inter-rater Reliability for Audiotaping

All the audiotaped narratives of the mothers and children were coded by the experimenter. In addition, 25% of the narratives were randomly classified by an independent coder. Inter-rater reliability was computed by the formula of: $\text{Agreements} / (\text{Agreements} + \text{Disagreements}) \times 100$ (with agreements plus disagreements being all the possibilities for agreement).

Emotional language. For the preschoolers' narratives for Time One, the inter-rater reliability for past conversations was 97.62%, for units of information 86.22% (Cohens kappa .83), and for emotional language it was 69.23% (kappa .59). At Time Two, the reliability for past conversations was 97.56%, for units of information 92.14% (kappa .90), and for emotional language it was 89.35% (kappa .85). The reliability and kappa for emotional language was low in the children's narratives. These children varied from sparse emotional language to medium amounts therefore one or two disagreements were liable to bring down the inter-rater reliability rate and the Cohens kappa.

For the mothers' narratives at Time One, the inter-rater reliability for past conversations was 97.62%, for units of information 89.46% (Cohens kappa .87), and for emotional language it was 98.23% (kappa .97). At Time Two, the reliability for past conversations was 97.56%, for units of information 89.23% (kappa .87), and for emotional language it was 99.62% (kappa .99).

Narrative elicitation style. For the preschoolers' narratives at Time One, the reliability for the classification of consequences was 57.05% (Cohens kappa .43). At Time Two, the reliability for consequences was 76.79% (kappa .69).

For the mothers' narratives at Time One, the inter-rater reliability for the classification of consequences was 88.99% (Cohens kappa .85). The reliability at Time Two was 95.17% (kappa .93).

Table 4.1

Mean Frequencies of the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and the Mothers' Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount) for the Mothers' Observed, Upbringing and Beliefs Parenting Style Dimensions (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) at Time One (30 month-old) and at Time Two (42 month-old).

Variable		Behaviour	Children's Language			Mothers' Language		
		Posit	Posit	Unique	Amount	Posit	Unique	Amount
Mothers':								
<u>Observation:</u>								
Auth/ive	T-1	8.40	0.17	1.09	3.44	4.17	11.27	10.34
	T-2	8.30	0.15	5.00	12.76	3.24	10.55	15.95
Auth/rian	T-1	6.01	-0.29	3.75	12.89	0.29	8.17	10.07
	T-2	7.63	-0.11	5.00	16.47	1.56	7.75	17.15
Permissive	T-1	6.45	-0.03	2.36	9.64	2.30	7.09	12.85
	T-2	8.00	0.52	4.64	23.73	0.15	10.55	16.30
Uninvolved	T-1	5.80	0.27	0.40	1.57	1.33	5.40	13.23
	T-2	6.79	-0.33	1.80	11.62	0.67	4.20	10.57
<u>Upbringing:</u>								
Auth/ive	T-1	6.95	-0.21	2.18	8.62	1.40	8.29	12.89
	T-2	7.81	0.00	3.88	13.55	1.37	8.35	15.35
Auth/rian	T-1	7.42	0.42	1.75	3.94	4.46	5.50	9.64
	T-2	8.12	0.46	4.63	23.09	1.67	10.00	16.44
Permissive	T-1	7.76	0.07	1.80	5.34	1.47	16.40	13.02
	T-2	8.98	-0.40	4.40	14.03	0.53	9.20	13.58
Uninvolved	T-1	5.34	-0.09	2.78	11.28	1.61	6.67	16.97
	T-2	6.91	0.56	5.56	19.11	2.22	8.67	17.00
<u>Beliefs:</u>								
Auth/ive	T-1	6.45	-0.30	1.40	6.42	1.92	5.67	11.17
	T-2	8.43	0.18	4.27	18.98	1.91	9.47	17.53
Auth/rian	T-1	7.43	0.20	2.50	8.43	0.69	12.08	12.76
	T-2	8.05	0.00	5.33	17.16	1.39	9.75	16.37
Permissive	T-1	6.41	0.33	3.13	9.15	4.17	9.00	16.97
	T-2	7.46	0.54	3.13	13.08	0.46	7.63	13.08
Uninvolved	T-1	6.85	0.29	2.25	8.90	2.71	6.25	14.40
	T-2	5.50	-0.25	5.50	15.48	2.58	6.50	12.36

N = 39. 'Posit' = Positivity, 'Unique' = Uniqueness; T-1 = Time One; T-2 = Time Two; Auth/ive = Authoritative; Auth/rian = Authoritarian.

Results

The results of this study will be presented in three main sections, viz.: descriptive analyses, correlational analyses and regression analyses. Time One represents the original

Table 4.2

Correlations of the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount) for the Mothers' Parental Warmth and Control (Observation, Upbringing and Beliefs) at Time One (30 month-old) and at Time Two (42 month-old).

Variable	Behaviour Positivity		Positivity		Children's Emotional Language Uniqueness		Amount	
	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2
Mothers':								
<u>Observation:</u>								
Warmth	.56***	.63***	.15	.08	-.19	.07	-.16	.18
Control	.25	.61***	-.12	.23	.10	-.10	-.01	-.17
<u>Upbringing:</u>								
Warmth	.44**	.41**	-.10	-.14	-.02	-.37*	-.08	-.14
Control	.37*	.05	-.05	-.23	-.02	-.25	-.09	-.02
<u>Beliefs:</u>								
Warmth	-.38*	.31	-.20	-.16	-.09	-.15	.04	.01
Control	-.07	.19	-.22	.15	-.08	.16	-.03	.39*

N = 39. T-1 = Time One; T-2 = Time Two.

**p* < 0.05

***p* < 0.01

****p* < 0.001

study and Time Two represents the twelve-month followup. The descriptive section will contain the mean frequencies of the children's behaviour and the children's and mothers' language variables for the parenting style dimensions. The correlation section will contain the correlations among the children's variables and the mothers' variables.

The regression section will begin with results regarding the influence exerted on the children's variables by the mothers' parental warmth and control as well as their parenting style dimensions. Then it will contain results concerned with the impact that the mothers' variables (at Time One) exert on the children's variables measured twelve months later.

Descriptive Analyses

The means of the children's and mothers' emotional variables for observed, upbringing and beliefs parenting style dimensions are shown in Table 4.1 for Time One and for Time Two. The children's variables are emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). The mothers' variables are emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). Language variables for each individual were a mean of their three narratives. Parenting style dimensions were authoritative, authoritarian,

permissive and uninvolved. There was no easily discernable pattern in either the children's or the mothers' means for the observed, upbringing or beliefs parenting style dimensions.

Correlational Analyses

Correlations of the Preschoolers' Variables for Parental Warmth and Control

The correlations of the children's emotional variables for the mothers' parental warmth and control are shown in Table 4.2 for Time One and for Time Two. The children's variables are emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). The mothers' parental warmth and control variables are from observation, upbringing and beliefs.

Emotional behaviour (positivity). At Time One, children who were more positive in their emotional behaviour had positive relationships with mothers who were observed to display more warmth and with mothers who perceived more warmth and more control in their own upbringing. In contrast, mothers who believed in more warmth in parenting had a negative relationship with the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour.

At Time Two, the positivity of the children's emotional behaviour had positive relationships with the mothers' observed warmth and control and with mothers who perceived they had had more warmth in their own upbringing.

Emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). There were no correlations at Time One. At Time Two, there was a negative relationship between the children's vocabulary of emotional language and mothers who perceived more warmth in their own upbringing. In contrast, there was a positive association between children with a greater amount of emotional language in their narratives and mothers who believed in more control in parenting.

Altogether, one fifth of the correlations with parental warmth and control in Table 4.2 were significant. A few correlations could have been through chance alone.

Table 4.3

Correlations of the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount) for the Mothers' Education, Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and Observed, Upbringing and Beliefs Parenting Style Dimensions (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) at Time One (30 month-old) and at Time Two (42 month-old).

Variable	Behaviour Positivity		Positivity		Children's Emotional Language			
	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2	Uniqueness		Amount	
					T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2
Mothers:								
Education	.44**	-.05	.16	-.10	-.21	.28	.01	.04
<u>Language:</u>								
Positivity	.25	-.02	.34*	.41*	-.16	-.03	-.23	.13
Uniqueness	.33*	.26	-.14	.13	.19	.59**	.13	.15
Amount	.02	.08	-.10	.26	.41**	.18	.52**	.52**
<u>Parenting:</u>								
<u>Observation:</u>								
Auth/ive	.49**	.16	.09	-.01	-.29	.12	-.29	-.19
Auth/rian	-.20	-.04	-.15	-.04	.45**	.14	.38*	-.01
Perm/ive	-.08	.09	-.01	.17	.05	.03	.10	.32*
Uninv/d	-.18	-.19	.09	-.13	-.29	-.40*	-.26	-.15
<u>Upbringing:</u>								
Auth/ive	.08	.06	-.16	-.11	.01	-.22	.09	-.21
Auth/rian	.19	.07	.18	.09	-.11	.01	-.21	.22
Perm/ive	.19	.23	.03	-.15	-.05	-.01	-.09	-.07
Uninv/d	-.24	-.23	-.08	.09	.21	.08	.16	.08
<u>Beliefs:</u>								
Auth/ive	-.16	.25	-.20	-.02	-.25	-.02	-.11	.15
Auth/rian	.19	.09	-.01	-.06	.09	.20	.04	.05
Perm/ive	-.09	-.08	.14	.15	.22	-.30	.08	-.13
Uninv/d	-.01	-.31	.07	-.11	-.02	.13	.04	-.07

N = 39. T-1 = Time One; T-2 = Time Two; Auth/ive = Authoritative; Auth/rian = Authoritarian; Perm/ive = Permissive; Uninv/d = Uninvolved.

**p* < 0.05

***p* < 0.01

Correlations of the Preschoolers' Variables for the Mothers' Variables

Table 4.3 shows the correlations of the children's variables for the mothers' variables at Time One and Time Two. The children's variables are emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). The mothers' variables include education, emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount) and observed, upbringing

and beliefs parenting style dimensions. Parenting style dimensions are authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved.

Emotional behaviour (positivity). There were no significant correlations at Time Two. At Time One, children with more positive emotional behaviour had positive associations with mothers who were more highly educated. Also, these children had positive relationships with mothers who had a larger vocabulary of emotional language.

Children who were more positive in their emotional behaviour had positive relationships at Time One with mothers who were observed to be more authoritative in their parenting style.

Emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). Children who were more positive in their emotional language had positive relationships with mothers who were more positive in their emotional language, at both time periods. At Time One, the childrens' vocabulary of emotional language had a positive relationship with the amount of their mothers' emotional language. At Time Two, there was a positive association between the vocabulary of emotional language of the children and the mothers. At both time periods, there were positive relationships between the amounts of emotional language of the children and the mothers.

The children's positivity of emotional language did not correlate with the mothers' parenting style dimensions at either time periods. The children's emotional language uniqueness had a positive association with the observed authoritarian dimension at Time One but a negative relationship with the observed uninvolved parenting dimension at Time Two. Children with a greater amount of emotional language in their narratives had a positive relationship with mothers who were observed to be more authoritarian in their parenting style at Time One. At Time Two, children's amount of emotional language was positively associated with their mothers' observed permissive parenting style.

Table 4.4

Correlations Between the Mothers' Education, Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and Observed, Upbringing and Beliefs Parenting Style Dimensions (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) at Time One (30 month-old).

Var	Educ 1.	2.	Language 3.	4.	1.	Observation 2.	3.	4.	1.	Upbringing 2.	3.	4.	1.	Beliefs 2.	3.	4.
1.Educ	-															
<u>Language:</u>																
2.Pos	.01	-														
3.Uniq	.08	-.04	-													
4.Amt	-.16	.20	.18	-												
<u>Parenting:</u>																
<u>Observ/n:</u>																
1.A/ve	.50**	.25	.21	-.20	-											
2.A/rn	-.38*	-.22	-.01	.24	-.41**	-										
3.Perm	.16	.04	-.10	-.03	-.39*	-.41**	-									
4.Unv	-.35*	-.06	-.13	-.01	-.24	-.25	-.24	-								
<u>Upbring:</u>																
1.A/ve	-.05	-.11	-.01	.02	.15	.13	-.32*	.09	-							
2.A/rn	.06	.23	-.17	-.20	-.03	.01	-.01	.02	-.44**	-						
3.Perm	.32*	-.05	.39*	.02	.11	-.25	.26	-.15	-.34*	-.19	-					
4.Unv	-.20	-.05	-.08	.22	-.18	-.06	.17	.08	-.43**	-.25	-.19	-				
<u>Beliefs:</u>																
1.A/ve	-.16	-.03	-.25	-.18	.18	.09	-.26	.00	-.03	.26	-.15	-.10	-			
2.A/rn	.27	-.19	.27	-.02	.06	.02	.09	-.26	.20	-.23	.24	-.28	-.52**	-		
3.Perm	-.28	.20	.04	.22	-.32*	-.04	.09	.37*	.03	.07	.00	-.03	-.40*	-.34*	-	
4.Unv	.20	.04	-.08	.05	-.03	-.06	.17	-.13	-.30	-.17	-.13	.63**	-.27	-.22	-.17	-

N = 39. Educ = Education; Observ/n = Observation; Upbring = Upbringing; A/ve = Authoritative; A/vn = Authoritarian; Perm = Permissive; Unv = Uninvolved.

**p* < 0.05

***p* < 0.01

Table 4.5

Correlations Between the Mothers' Education, Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and Observed, Upbringing and Beliefs Parenting Style Dimensions (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) at Time Two (42 month-old).

Var	Educ		Language		Observation		Upbringing		Beliefs							
	1.	2.	3.	4.	1.	2.	3.	4.	1.	2.	3.	4.	1.	2.	3.	4.
1.Educ	-															
<u>Language:</u>																
2.Pos	-.12	-														
3.Uniq	.24	-.06	-													
4.Amt	.01	.22	.32*	-												
<u>Parenting:</u>																
<u>Observ/n:</u>																
1.A/ve	.50**	.38*	.23	.02	-											
2.A/rn	-.41**	.01	-.16	.16	-.42**	-										
3.Perm	.16	-.30	.24	.06	-.39*	-.42**	-									
4.Unv	-.35*	-.12	-.40*	-.30	-.24	-.26	-.24	-								
<u>Upbring:</u>																
1.A/ve	-.07	-.03	-.09	-.07	.14	.11	-.32*	.11	-							
2.A/rn	.09	-.02	.13	.05	.01	.05	-.04	-.02	-.44**	-						
3.Perm	.32*	-.15	.04	-.15	.12	-.25	.26	-.15	-.33*	-.19	-					
4.Unv	-.19	.21	-.11	.06	-.16	-.03	.12	.07	-.43**	-.25	-.19	-				
<u>Beliefs:</u>																
1.A/ve	-.16	.13	.12	.26	.22	.06	-.26	-.01	-.05	.26	-.13	-.07	-			
2.A/rn	.29	-.01	.13	.09	.11	.04	.05	-.25	.21	-.23	.23	-.27	-.52**	-		
3.Perm	-.28	-.17	-.15	-.21	-.31	-.05	.08	.40*	.03	.07	.01	-.13	-.39*	-.33*	-	
4.Unv	.19	.10	-.20	-.22	-.06	-.05	.17	-.13	-.29	-.17	-.13	.69**	-.26	-.22	-.17	-

N = 39. Educ = Education; Observ/n = Observation; Upbring = Upbringing; A/ve = Authoritative; A/vn = Authoritarian; Perm = Permissive; Unv = Uninvolved.

**p* < 0.05

***p* < 0.01

Only one tenth of the correlations of the preschoolers' variables for the mothers' variables in Table 4.3 were significant. A few correlations could have been through chance alone.

Correlations Between the Mothers' Variables

The correlations between the mothers' variables are shown in Table 4.4 for Time One and Table 4.5 for Time Two. The mothers' variables are education, emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount) and observed, upbringing and beliefs parenting style dimensions (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved).

Maternal education. The mothers' education did not correlate with their own emotional language (positivity, uniqueness or amount) at either time periods.

At Time One and at Time Two, the mothers' education had positive relationships with their observed authoritative parenting style and with their permissive parenting style of upbringing. Also at both time periods, there were negative association between the mothers' education with two parenting style dimensions of observation: authoritarian and uninvolved.

Maternal emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). There were no correlations within the mothers' three emotional language variables at Time One. At Time Two, the mothers' emotional language vocabulary had a positive relationship with their own amount of emotional language.

The mothers' emotional language uniqueness was correlated positively with the permissive parenting style of upbringing at Time One but negatively with the observed uninvolved style at Time Two.

Observed parenting style. At both time periods, the observed authoritative style had a positive association with maternal education. Also, both the observed authoritarian and the uninvolved parenting style dimensions had negative relationships with maternal education.

At Time Two, the observed uninvolved style had a negative association with the mothers' uniqueness of emotional language.

At both time periods, the observed authoritative parenting style was negatively associated with the observed authoritarian and the observed permissive styles. Also at Time One, the observed authoritarian style had a negative relationship with the permissive style of beliefs.

There were negative correlations within the observed parenting dimensions at both time periods, including: authoritative with authoritarian, authoritative with permissive and authoritarian with permissive.

At Time One, the observed authoritative style had a negative relationship with the permissive style of beliefs. At Time One and Time Two, the observed permissive style had negative associations with the authoritative style of upbringing. At both time periods, the observed uninvolved style had positive relationships to the permissive style of beliefs.

Upbringing parenting style. At both time periods, the permissive style of upbringing had positive relationships with maternal education.

At Time One, the permissive style of upbringing had a positive association with the mothers' uniqueness of emotional language.

There were negative correlations within the parenting dimensions of upbringing at both time periods, including: authoritative with authoritarian, authoritative with permissive, and authoritative with uninvolved.

At Time One and at Time Two, the authoritative style of upbringing had negative associations with the observed permissive style. Also, the uninvolved style of upbringing had positive relationships to the uninvolved style of beliefs at both time periods.

Beliefs parenting style. There were no significant correlations between the parenting dimensions of beliefs and maternal education or maternal emotional language.

At Time One and at Time Two, there were negative correlations within the parenting dimensions of beliefs, including: authoritative with authoritarian, authoritative with permissive, and authoritarian with permissive.

There was a negative relationship between mothers' permissive style of beliefs and their observed authoritative parenting style at Time One. At both time periods, the mothers'

Table 4.6

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Hierarchical Regressions with the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) as the Dependent Variable at Time One (30 month-old) and Time Two (42 month-old).

Independent variables	Dependent variables	
	Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) Time One	Time Two
(a)		
Set One:		
Education (Mother)	.44**	—
Set Two:		
Warmth (Observation)	.53**	.51***
Control (Observation)	.37**	.50***
R²	.45***	.64***
(b)		
Set One:		
Education (Mother)	.44**	—
Set Two:		
Authoritative Parenting Style (Observation)	.43*	—
Authoritative Parenting Style (Beliefs)	-.21	.41*
Authoritarian Parenting Style (Beliefs)	—	.30
R²	.33**	.13

Note: Time One, $n = 39$; Time Two $n = 39$. The dependent variables are scored in a positive direction. The regression co-efficients for Set One variables were obtained with only the one variable entered. The **R²** represents the total variance explained with all variables entered.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

permissive style of beliefs had positive associations with their uninvolved parenting dimensions that were observed. Also at both time periods, there were positive relationships between the mothers' uninvolved style of beliefs and their uninvolved style of upbringing.

There were more significant correlations among the mothers' variables in Tables 4.4 and 4.5. However, some could have been through chance alone.

Table 4.7

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Regressions with the Preschoolers' Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount) as the Dependent Variables at Time One (48 month-old) and Time Two (42 month-old).

Independent variables	Dependent variables	
	Emotional Language [Positivity] Time One	Time Two
(a)		
Mothers' Emotional Language [Positivity]	.34*	.41**
R^2	.12*	.17*
	Emotional Language [Uniqueness]	
	Time One	Time Two
(b)		
Mothers' Emotional Language [Uniqueness]	.19	.59***
R^2	.04	.35***
	Emotional Language [Amount]	
	Time One	Time Two
(c)		
Mothers' Emotional Language [Amount]	.52***	.52***
R^2	.27***	.27***

Note: Time One, $n=39$; Time Two, $n=39$. The dependent variables are scored in a positive direction. The R^2 represents the total variance explained with all variables entered.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

Regression Analyses

Multiple Regression Analyses With the Preschoolers' Variables as Dependent Variables

Clearly one of the problems of interpreting the correlations presented here is that many of the variables shared variance. For instance, the children's and mothers' variables of emotional language were significantly correlated, as were the mothers' observed, upbringing and beliefs variables: both for parental warmth and control, and for parenting style dimensions. In order to control for the effect of confounding variables, a series of hierarchical

Table 4.8

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Hierarchical Regressions with the Preschoolers' Emotional Language (Uniqueness) as the Dependent Variable at Time One (30 month-old) and Time Two (42 month-old).

Independent variables	Dependent variables	
	Emotional Language (Uniqueness) Time One	Time Two
Authoritarian Parenting Style [Observation]	.40*	.04
Uninvolved Parenting Style [Observation]	-.19	-.39*
R^2	.23**	.16*

Note: Time One, $n = 39$; Time Two (12 month followup), $n = 39$. The dependent variables are scored in a positive direction. The R^2 represents the total variance explained with all variables entered.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.9

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Hierarchical Regressions with the Preschoolers' Emotional Language (Amount) as the Dependent Variable at Time One (30 month-old) and Time Two (42 month-old).

Independent variables	Dependent variables	
	Emotional Language (Amount) Time One	Time Two
Authoritarian Parenting Style [Observation]	.51**	.14
Permissive Parenting Style (Observation)	.31	.38*
R^2	.23**	.12

Note: Time One, $n = 39$; Time Two (12 month followup), $n = 39$. The dependent variables are scored in a positive direction. The R^2 represents the total variance explained with all variables entered.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

and multiple regressions were carried out. The independent variables were entered into the analysis in a predetermined order with each of the childrens' variables as the dependent variable (see Cohen & Cohen, 1983, for more details). The first set of independent variables comprised the gender of the child - the education of the mother was included if it was significant at Time One or Time Two. The second set comprised the significant variable or variables of the observed, upbringing and beliefs parental warmth and control or parenting style dimensions (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved).

Emotional behaviour (positivity). As can be seen in Set One of Tables 4.6a and 4.6b, the positivity of children's emotional behaviour was positively effected by their mothers' higher education at Time One.

At both time periods, children who were more positive in their emotional behaviour had mothers who had more parental warmth and control in their observed behaviour (see Table 4.6a). These strong regressions captured approximately half and two-thirds of the children's behaviour respectively.

Further hierarchical regressions were carried out to clarify the parenting style dimensions (see Table 4.6b). The positivity of children's emotional behaviour was positively effected by their mothers' observed authoritative parenting style at Time One. This strong regression encompassed one third of the emotional behaviour. At Time Two, there was a positive regressional effect on the children's behaviour from their mothers' beliefs in authoritative parenting. Although this was a strong regression, it only captured one seventh of the children's emotional behaviour.

Emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). As can be seen in Table 4.7, the mothers' positivity of emotional language had positive regressional effects on the positivity of their children's emotional language at Time One and at Time Two. These were moderately strong regressions capturing less than one fifth of the children's emotional language positivity. At Time Two, the mothers' uniqueness of emotional language had a positive effect on their children's emotional language uniqueness. This strong regression encompassed over one third of the children's uniqueness. The mothers' amount of emotional language had positive regressional effects on their children's amount of emotional language at both time periods. These strong regressions captured over one fourth of the children's amount of emotional language.

The mothers' emotional language obviously had an effect on their children's emotional language. Multiple regressions that did not include the mothers' emotional language were then carried out with the mothers' parental warmth and control and their parenting style dimensions. Although the mothers' language positivity effected their

children's language positivity, there were no regressional effects from parental warmth and control or from parenting dimensions.

As can be seen in Table 4.8, the mothers' observed authoritarian parenting style had a positive regressional effect on their children's uniqueness of emotional language at Time One. At Time Two, the mothers' observed uninvolved style had a negative effect on their children's emotional language uniqueness. These moderate regressions encompassed one-quarter and one-sixth respectively of the children's emotional language uniqueness.

As shown in Table 4.9, children's amount of emotional language was positively effected at Time One by their mothers' observed authoritarian style. This strong regression captured nearly one-quarter of the children's amount of emotional language. At Time Two, the amount of the children's emotional language was positively effected by their mothers' observed permissive style. Although this was a moderate regression, it only encompassed one-eighth of the children's emotional language amount.

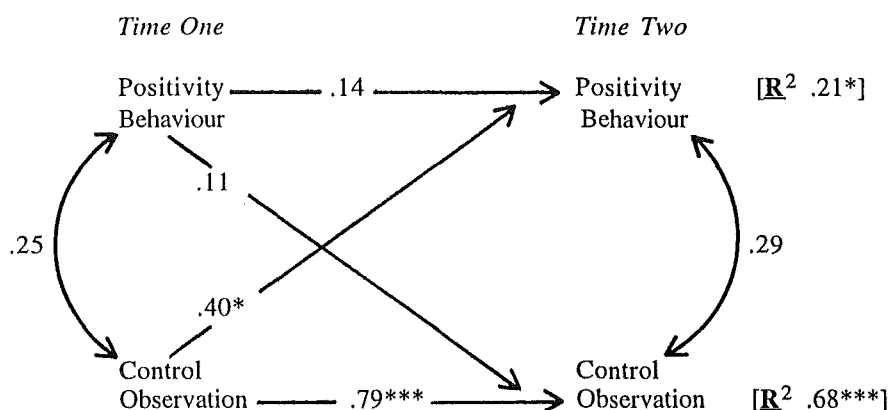
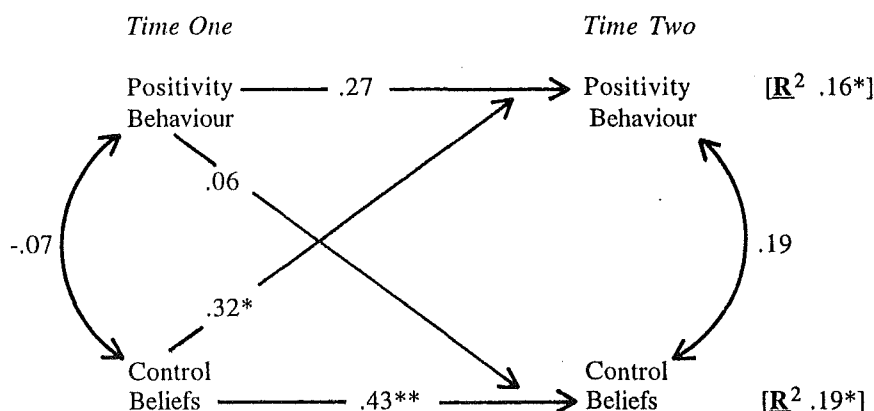
Cross-lagged Regression Analyses for Preschoolers' and Mothers' Variables at Time Two

Cross-lagged regression analyses was used to investigate the extent to which the children's variables, and the mothers' variables, would be associated with the children's and the mothers' variables 12 months later at Time Two. Two sets of regression analyses were used for each of the children's variables of emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). In the first regression, the dependent variable was a children's variable at Time Two, with the independent variables being the corresponding children's variable at Time One and a mothers' variable at Time One. In the second regression, the corresponding mothers' variable at Time Two was the dependent variable, and the children's variable at Time One and the mothers' variable at Time One were the independent variables.

As can be seen in Figures 4.1 to 4.3, the mothers' variables demonstrated high stability from Time One to Time Two (co-efficients from .74 to .99) with the exception of Figure 4.1b (co-efficient .43). These children were 30 months-old at Time One, and 42 months-old at Time Two. While their emotional behaviour had a reasonable stability for age

Figure 4.1

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Multiple Regression with the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Parental Control (Observation and Beliefs) at Time Two (42 month-old) as Dependent Variables.

(a)**(b)**

Note. Time One, $n = 39$; and Time Two (12 month followup), $n = 39$. The multiple R^2 for each regression equation are shown in brackets. The single-headed arrows show the regression co-efficients, while the double-headed arrows show the correlations.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

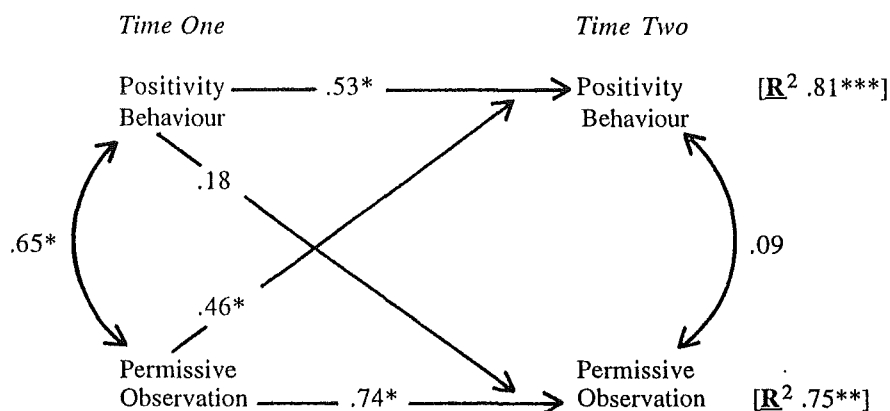
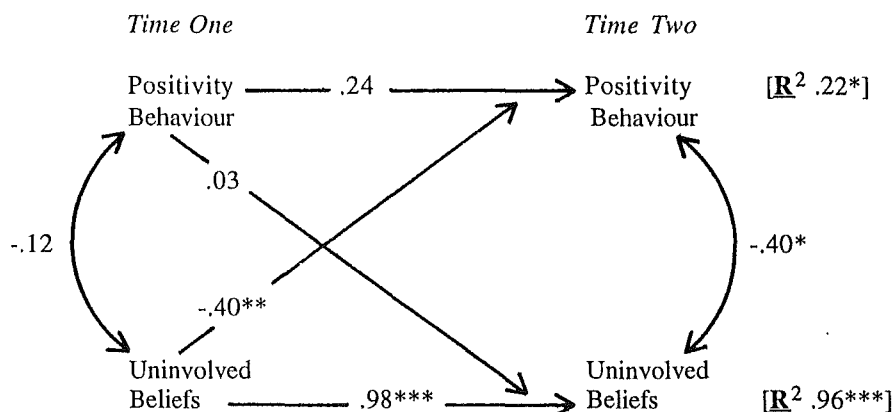
*** $p < 0.001$

(co-efficients .14 to .53), their emotional language uniqueness had a very low stability (co-efficient -.15 and -.03).

These analyses determined whether a given variable (e. g., observed permissive parenting style) at Time One was associated with a change in another variable (e. g., level of positivity of emotional behaviour) over the 12 month period. The crucial regression co-efficients are those shown in the diagonal arrows.

Figure 4.2

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Multiple Regression with the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity), and Parenting Styles: Permissive (Observation) and Uninvolved (Beliefs) at Time Two (42 month-old) as Dependent Variables.

(a)**(b)**

Note. Time One, $n = 39$; and Time Two (12 month followup), $n = 39$. The multiple R^2 for each regression equation are shown in brackets. The single-headed arrows show the regression co-efficients, while the double-headed arrows show the correlations.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

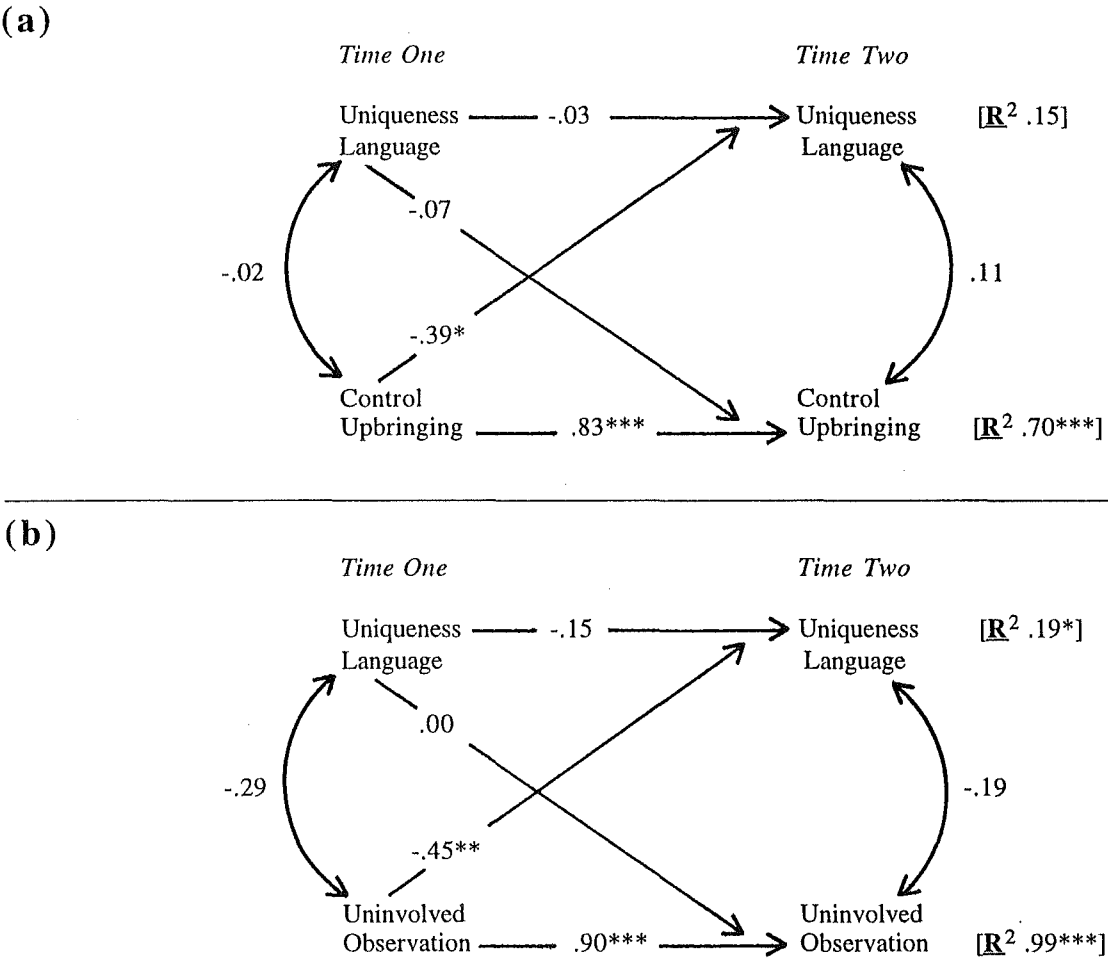
*** $p < 0.001$

Emotional behaviour (positivity). As shown in Figure 4.1a, the mothers with more observed parental control at Time One increased the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour at Time Two. This was a strong cross-lag regression but only one-fifth of the children's behaviour was captured.

Mothers who believed in more control at Time One also increased the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour at Time Two (see Figure 4.1b). This moderate regression captured one-sixth of the children's behaviour.

Figure 4.3

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Multiple Regression with the Preschoolers' Emotional Language (Uniqueness), and Parental Control (Upbringing) and Uninvolved Parenting Style (Observation) at Time Two (42 month-old) as Dependent Variables.



Note. Time One, $n = 39$; and Time Two (12 month followup), $n = 39$. The multiple R^2 for each regression equation are shown in brackets. The single-headed arrows show the regression co-efficients, while the double-headed arrows show the correlations.

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$
*** $p < 0.001$

As shown in Figure 4.2a, the mothers who were observed to be more permissive at Time One increased the positivity of their childrens' emotional behaviour at Time Two. This was a strong positive regression that captured four-fifths of the children's emotional behaviour.

Mothers who believed in being more uninvolved at Time One decreased the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour at Time Two (see Figure 4.2b). Although

this was a strong negative regression, it only involved over one-fifth of the emotional behaviour of children.

Emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). Although the mothers' positivity and amount of emotional language regressionally effected their children's positivity and amount respectively at Time One (see Tables 4.7a and 4.7c), there was no cross-lagged regressional effect at Time Two.

Mothers who remembered at Time One that there had been more control in their own upbringing negatively decreased the range of their children's emotional language at Time Two (see Figure 4.3a). This was a strong cross-lag regression but it only captured one-sixth of the children's uniqueness of emotional language.

Mothers who were observed at Time One to be more uninvolved in their parenting style negatively decreased the range of their children's emotional language at Time Two (see Figure 4.3b). This strong negative regression only encompassed one-fifth of the children's emotional language uniqueness.

Discussion

Influence of Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control

It was hypothesised that the mothers' parenting style dimensions would have a longitudinal influence over as well as a concurrent relationship with their preschoolers' emotional language, and emotional behaviour, viz.: (a) this would be positive if the parenting style dimensions were authoritative or had warmth and control together, or (b) this would be negative if the parenting style dimension was non-authoritative or had no warmth or no control. The parenting styles of warmth and control were either 'observed' from videotaped mother-child interactions or from responses in questionnaires dealing with the mothers' parental 'upbringing' and parental 'beliefs'.

Firstly, the collinearity of the mothers' variables will be discussed and then the results and hypotheses under the preschoolers' variables, namely: emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). This will be

followed by a summary of the longitudinal results that supported the theories of Harré (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) and Vygotsky (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994). Finally, the influence of parenting style dimensions across the different media of videotape, questionnaires and audiotape will be compared and discussed.

Mothers' Variables

The mothers' variables were education, emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount), and the observed, upbringing and beliefs parenting style dimensions (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved).

Education. The mothers' education had similar relationships at both time periods. There were positive associations with the observed authoritative parenting style dimensions but negative relationships with the observed non-authoritative dimensions (authoritarian and uninvolved), as would be expected. Unexpectedly, the mothers' education had a positive association to the permissive (non-authoritative) style of upbringing, at both time periods. This may possibly be because the permissive parenting dimension has warmth.

Emotional language. At the later date, there was a positive association between the mothers' emotional language uniqueness and amount, as would be expected.

Emotional language associations with parenting style dimensions differed in the two time periods. Uniqueness had a positive association to the permissive (non-authoritative) style of upbringing at the earlier time. This was not expected but may possibly be because the permissive dimension has warmth. However, as would be expected, there was a positive relationship between language positivity and observed authoritativeness as well as a negative association between uniqueness and the observed uninvolved parenting dimension, one year later.

Parenting style dimensions. The authoritative dimensions had negative associations with the authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved dimensions within each of the observed, upbringing and beliefs sets of dimensions, as would be expected.

Apart from the above, there were a few negative associations between the authoritative dimension in one set and a non-authoritative dimension in another set, e. g.: observed authoritative with beliefs permissive, at the earlier date; and upbringing authoritative with observed permissive, at both time periods. Also at both time periods, there were some positive relationships between non-authoritative dimensions in different sets, e. g.: observed uninvolved with beliefs permissive, and upbringing uninvolved with beliefs uninvolved. All of these parenting style dimension relationships were as expected.

Emotional Behaviour: Positivity

Emotional behaviour was coded from the videotaped interaction of the mother-child dyads and is a continuum of positivity.

At the earlier time, the mothers' education had a strong positive association with their children's emotional behaviour positivity. This was endorsed by a strong regressional effect of the mothers' higher education on one-third of the children's positivity of emotional behaviour. There was no relationship or effect when the children were a year older.

Also at the earlier time, there was a moderate positive association between the children's emotional behaviour positivity and their mothers' emotional language positivity. This was not endorsed by any regressional effect at either time periods.

Observed. There were concurrent and longitudinal relationships between the mothers' observed parental warmth and control and their children's emotional behaviour positivity. This would be expected, in that they were both coded from the mother-child interaction recorded on videotape. Parental warmth and control together equal authoritative parenting while warmth or control alone equal non-authoritative parenting. Earlier, there was a positive relationship between the mothers who displayed warmth alone (non-authoritative) and their preschoolers' positivity of emotional behaviour that was contrary to the hypothesis. However, when the children were older, there was a positive association between their behaviour and their mothers' warmth and control together (authoritative), as expected. These were followed at both times by strong positive regressional effects of warmth and control that involved almost one-half and one-third respectively of the children's

positivity of emotional behaviour. Unexpectedly, mothers who showed control alone (non-authoritative) at the earlier date had a strong positive influence over one-fifth of their children's emotional behaviour later.. This did not support the hypothesis in that the non-authoritative control alone directionally increased (instead of decreased) the positivity of a small amount of the children's emotional behaviour over the twelve months.

Again, there were concurrent and longitudinal relationships between mothers' observed parenting style dimensions and their children's emotional behaviour positivity. As expected, the mothers who displayed a more authoritative style of parenting (with warmth and control) had a strong positive association with their children's emotional behaviour positivity when the children were younger. This was endorsed by a strong positive regressional effect on one-third of the children's emotional behaviour. The authoritative dimension did not have a longitudinal effect. Unexpectedly, the more permissive mothers (with warmth only) at the earlier time had a strong positive effect on four-fifths of their children's later positivity of emotional behaviour. This directional increase in positivity by permissive (non-authoritative) mothers over the twelve months covered a very large amount of their children's emotional behaviour

As hypothesised, there were strong positive associations and regressional effects between the positivity of the children's emotional behaviour and the mothers' authoritative parenting in nearly all of the concurrent results. Authoritative parenting included parental warmth and control together as well as the authoritative parenting style dimension. Against the hypotheses, the surprising longitudinal results revealed strong positive effects from parental control and permissive parenting: both non-authoritative, although the permissive parenting did contain warmth. Previous research has shown that the mothers' authoritative parenting styles with warmth and control have had a positive association with their children's positive emotional behaviour concurrently (Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Steinberg et al., 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991) and longitudinally (Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992; Baumrind, 1991; Brook et al., 1988). In contrast, the mothers' non-authoritative parenting with no warmth and/or no control has had a negative association with their children's negative emotional behaviour concurrently (Miller et al., 1993); Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Lamborn et al., 1991) and longitudinally (Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984; Baumrind, 1991).

Upbringing. There were mixed concurrent associations between the mothers' remembered childhood and the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour. As expected, mothers who remembered parental warmth and control together (authoritative) from upbringing had strong and moderate associations respectively with the emotional behaviour of their children at the time they were younger. Later, mothers who only recalled parental warmth (non-authoritative) had strong positive associations with their children's emotional behaviour positivity, contrary to the hypothesis. These associations were not followed by any regression effects.

There were no significant results for the children's emotional behaviour positivity involving the mothers' parenting style dimensions of upbringing.

As hypothesised, parental warmth and control together (authoritative) from the mothers' remembered upbringing had a positive relationship to their preschoolers' emotional behaviour when the children were younger. Unexpectedly, parental warmth alone (non-authoritative) had a positive association when the children were older. Research has shown that remembered non-authoritative parental styles have had an effect on adult depression (Crook et al., 1981; Whitbeck et al., 1992) and on present parenting styles (Elder et al., 1984; Vermulst et al., 1991).

Beliefs. There were mixed concurrent and longitudinal results between the mothers' beliefs in parental warmth and control, and the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour. The moderate negative association between the mothers' warmth alone (non-authoritative) and the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour supported the hypothesis at the earlier date. However, mothers who believed in control alone (non-authoritative) had a moderate positive influence over one-sixth of their children's emotional behaviour. This did not support the hypothesis in that the mothers' beliefs in control alone directionally increased (instead of decreasing) the positivity of a small amount of their children's emotional behaviour over the twelve months.

There were mixed results from beliefs in authoritative and non-authoritative parenting. As expected, mothers who believed in more authoritative parenting had a strong

positive concurrent effect on their children's positivity of emotional behaviour at the later time period. Also, mothers who earlier believed in non-authoritative uninvolved parenting with their children had a strong negative effect on a small amount of their children's later emotional behaviour. This supported the hypothesis in that beliefs in the non-authoritative uninvolved dimension directionally decreased the positivity of a small amount of the children's emotional behaviour over the twelve months.

As hypothesised, the mothers' beliefs in more authoritative parenting have had positive effects while beliefs in non-authoritative parenting including parental warmth alone have had negative effects on their children's emotional behaviour positivity, both concurrently and longitudinally. Against the hypotheses, the mothers' belief in non-authoritative parental control alone had a positive longitudinal effect on a small amount of their children's emotional behaviour. Previous research has shown a relationship between parental beliefs and the remembered parenting practices (Simons et al., 1992; Whitbeck et al., 1992; Vermulst et al., 1991).

Overall, the positivity of the children's emotional behaviour was affected in different ways by the mothers' parenting that was observed, remembered or believed in. It was hypothesised that authoritative parenting (warm and control) would have a positive effect and non-authoritative parenting (no warmth and/or control) would have a negative effect.

Observed: As hypothesised, there were positive effects from both authoritative parenting, and parental warmth and control together. Unexpectedly, there were also positive effects from permissive parenting, parental warmth alone and parental control alone - all which were non-authoritative.

Upbringing: As expected, there was a positive effect from both parental warm and control together. Surprisingly, there was a positive effect from parental warmth alone (non-authoritative).

Beliefs: As hypothesised, there was a positive effect from authoritative parenting and a negative effect from uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative) parenting. Unexpectedly, there was also a positive effect from parental control alone (non-authoritative).

Emotional Language: Positivity

Emotional language positivity is a mean of the children's three narratives with positive minus negative making a continuum of positivity.

As expected, the mothers' positivity of emotional language had moderate and strong positive association with the children's language positivity at the earlier and the later time respectively. This was endorsed by moderate and strong regression effects involving one-eighth and one-sixth respectively of the children's emotional language.

No association was found between the positivity of the preschoolers' emotional language and either parental warmth and control, or parenting style dimensions. This is surprising, as Miller and Sperry (1987) found an association between the mothers' negative language and their daughters' later verbal justification of negative emotional behaviour. These mothers were observed when endeavouring to socialise their preschoolers' anger and aggression with respect to the norms of their culture and their own upbringing.

Emotional Language: Uniqueness

Emotional language uniqueness comprises the total of unique positive and negative emotional language in the children's three narratives.

The children's uniqueness of emotional language had a strong positive associations with the mothers' emotional language amount at the earlier time as well as a very strong association with the mothers' language uniqueness at the later time. The latter was followed by a very strong regression effect on over one-third of the children's uniqueness of emotional language.

Observed. There were concurrent associations and effects as well as longitudinal effects on the children's uniqueness of emotional behaviour from the mothers' parenting dimensions. Contrary to the hypothesis, mothers who displayed more authoritarian (non-authoritative) parenting had a strong positive association with their children's uniqueness at the earlier time. This was endorsed by a strong regression effect that covered nearly one-quarter of the children's emotional language uniqueness. As expected, the mothers who were observed to be more uninvolved (non-authoritative) in parenting had a negative association to

their children's uniqueness of emotional language in the later time period. This was endorsed by a moderate negative regression effect on one-sixth of the children's language uniqueness. As hypothesised, mothers who were more uninvolved at the earlier time had a strong negative effect on one-fifth of their children's emotional language uniqueness at the later time. This directional decrease in uniqueness by non-authoritative mothers over the twelve months covered a small part of their children's emotional language.

Upbringing. There was a concurrent association and a longitudinal effect on the children's uniqueness of emotional behaviour from the mothers' parental warmth and control remembered from childhood. As hypothesised, mothers who recalled parental warmth alone (non-authoritative) from their childhood had a negative association with their children's emotional language uniqueness in the later time period. Also, mothers who earlier remembered parental control alone (non-authoritative) in their upbringing had a negative effect on one-sixth of their children's emotional language uniqueness at the later time. This directional decrease over twelve months by mothers who recalled control without warmth covered a small part of their children's emotional language uniqueness.

Beliefs. No association or effect was found for beliefs in parental warmth and control or parenting style dimensions.

As expected, the children's uniqueness of emotional language was strongly effected by their mothers' own emotional language uniqueness. As hypothesised, the mothers' observed and upbringing non-authoritative parenting had negative concurrent and longitudinal effects on their children's uniqueness of emotional language. Surprisingly, the mothers' observed authoritarian (non-authoritative) parenting had positive concurrent associations and effects on their children's emotional language vocabulary. Research has shown a longitudinal relationship between the way the mothers spoke to their children and the uniqueness of their emotional vocabulary (Kuebli et al., 1995). Mothers used a greater variety of emotional words with daughters than with sons. Later, the girls used a greater variety of emotional words in conversation than did the boys.

In summary, the uniqueness of the children's emotional language was affected in different ways by the mothers' parenting that was observed or remembered.

Observed: As hypothesised, there was a negative effect from authoritarian parenting (non-authoritative). Unexpectedly, there was also a negative effect from uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative).

Upbringing: As expected, there were negative effects from parental warmth alone and from parental control alone (both non-authoritative).

Emotional Language: Amount

Emotional language amount comprises the mean percentage of emotional language in the children's narratives in comparison to other units of information.

The children's amount of emotional language had very strong positive associations with the mothers' emotional language amount at both time periods. These were endorsed very strong regressional effects on over one-quarter of the children's amount of emotional language at each time period.

Observed. All the concurrent associations and effects on the amount of emotional language were against the hypotheses. At the earlier time, mothers who were observed to be more authoritarian (non-authoritative) had a moderate positive association with their children's language amount, contrary to the hypothesis. This was endorsed by a very strong regressional effect on nearly one-quarter of the children's amount of emotional language by these non-authoritative mothers. In another unexpected outcome in the later time period, the more permissive mothers had a positive association with the children's amount of language. Again, this non-authoritative positive result was endorsed by a strong regressional effect on an eighth of the children's emotional language amount.

Clearly there were strong positive effects on the amount of children's emotional language by mothers who who displayed non-authoritative parenting, despite being contrary to the hypothesis. One of these non-authoritative dimensions contained warmth (permissive) but the other did not (authoritarian).

Upbringing. No association or effect was found for parental warmth and control or for parenting style dimensions.

Beliefs. At the later time period, there was a positive association between mothers who believed in parental control alone (non-authoritative) and the amount of their children's emotional language, contrary to the hypothesis.

As expected, it is obvious that the mothers' own amount of emotional language have had positive concurrent effects on their children emotional language amount. Contrary to the hypotheses, there were positive concurrent associations and effects on the amount of children's emotional language by mothers who displayed and believed in non-authoritative parenting. Longitudinal research has shown that mothers who talked more about emotions with girls had daughters who later spoke more of emotions than did boys (Dunn et al., 1987; Kuebli et al., 1995). Also, mothers who earlier spoke more about evaluation that included emotion to their children had preschoolers who later spoke more about evaluation (Fivush, 1991; McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Haden et al., 1997).

In summary, the amount of the children's emotional language was affected in different ways by the mothers' parenting that was observed or believed in.

Observed: Unexpectedly, there were positive effects from authoritarian parenting and from permissive parenting (both non-authoritative).

Beliefs: Surprisingly, there was a positive effect from parental control alone (non-authoritative).

Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour and Language: Summary of Results

All the above longitudinal results in emotional behaviour and emotional language supported Harré's (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) theory of the social construction of emotion and Vygotsky's (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interactionist theory of emotions. In Harré's theory of the social construction of emotions, the belief

system of the culture concerning emotions is maintained and transmitted from the mother to child by means of language. To support this theory, longitudinal research must show that the mother's norms about emotions and emotional language were assimilated by her child as shown in later narratives. For Vygotsky's social interaction theory of emotion, the interpersonal speech between adult and child becomes transformed or internalised over the ZPD into intrapersonal speech of the child. To support this theory, longitudinal research must show that the earlier emotional speech of the mother with her child was internalised by the child as reflected in later speech.

The longitudinal changes over twelve months of the present research supported both Harré's and Vygotsky's theories. These cross-lag regressions ranged in strength from moderate (.32 to .39) to strong (.40 to .46) and covered a small (one-sixth) to a very large (four-fifths) part of the children's variable. Although most of these longitudinal changes are over a small amount of the children's emotional behaviour and language, they can be attributed to the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control. It was hypothesised that authoritative parenting would have positive effects while the non-authoritative parenting would have negative effects. Some of these longitudinal results are not consistent with these hypotheses, as shown in the following summary.

Emotional behaviour: positivity.

(as hypothesised)

1. Strong decrease in positivity by beliefs in uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative) involving a small amount of emotional behaviour.

(against hypotheses)

1. Strong increase in positivity by observed parental control (non-authoritative) involving a small amount of emotional behaviour.
2. Strong increase in positivity by observed permissive parenting (non-authoritative) involving a large amount of emotional behaviour.
3. Moderate increase in positivity by beliefs in parental control (non-authoritative) involving a small amount of emotional behaviour.

Emotional language: uniqueness.

(as hypothesised)

1. Strong decrease in uniqueness by observed uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative) involving a small amount of emotional language.
2. Moderate decrease in uniqueness by upbringing of parental control involving a small amount of emotional language.

Across Different Media

The focus is on the influence of the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control across different mediums on the children's variables of emotional language (on audiotape) and emotional behaviour (on videotape). This will be discussed under the parenting styles of warmth and control, namely: observed (videotape), upbringing (questionnaire) and beliefs (questionnaire).

Observed (videotape). The mothers' observed parenting styles had concurrent and longitudinal effects on their children's positivity of emotional behaviour. This was to be expected, as the emotional behaviour was coded from the interaction of mother-child dyads on the videotape. These observed parenting styles also had concurrent and longitudinal effects on the children's emotional language uniqueness, and longitudinal effects on their amount of emotional language. This meant that the mothers' parenting styles observed on videotape taken at university had an effect over their children's narratives that were elicited at another time at home on audiotape.

Upbringing (questionnaire). The mothers' parental upbringing had concurrent effects on their children's positivity of emotional behaviour. This meant that questionnaires completed by the mothers at home had an effect on the children's emotional behaviour captured on videotape at another time. The mothers' parental upbringing had a concurrent and a longitudinal effect on their children's uniqueness of emotional language. This meant

that questionnaires completed by the mothers at home had an effect on the children's emotional language uniqueness that was elicited at another time at home on audiotape.

Beliefs (questionnaire). The mothers' beliefs in parenting had concurrent and longitudinal effects on children's positivity of emotional behaviour. This meant that questionnaires completed by the mothers at home had an effect on the children's emotional behaviour captured on videotape at another time. The mothers' beliefs in parenting had a concurrent effect on their children's amount of emotional language. This meant that questionnaires completed by the mothers at home had an effect on the children's emotional language amount that was elicited at another time at home on audiotape.

In summary, the fact that the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control from one medium have affected their children's variables in another medium gives strength to this research.

Observed (videotape): The mothers' parenting styles have affected their children's emotional behaviour (videotape) and emotional language uniqueness and amount (both audiotape).

Upbringing (questionnaire): The mothers' parenting styles have affected their children's emotional behaviour (videotape) and emotional language uniqueness (audiotape).

Beliefs (questionnaire): The mothers' parenting styles have affected their children's emotional behaviour (videotape) and emotional language amount (audiotape).

CHAPTER V: STUDY OF OLDER PRESCHOOLERS

Method

Participants

Selection and Randomization

The selection of participants for the older preschoolers from the non-random sample followed the method for ‘Selection of Participants’ (see Chapter III: General Method).

Numbers of mothers with different observed parenting style dimensions in the non-random 48 months old sample of dyads (60) were:

Authoritative	31.
Authoritarian	16.
Permissive	6.
Uninvolved	7.

Twelve authoritative and 12 authoritarian mothers were randomly selected from the two groups. This resulted in 37 mothers, as in the following observed parenting style dimensions:

Authoritative	12.
Authoritarian	12.
Permissive	6.
Uninvolved	7.

Procedure

The procedure followed the general method in Chapter III. This included categorising the already selected 37 participants into their different parental styles of upbringing, and the different parental styles of beliefs. The procedure was as described for the observed parenting style dimensions, as in ‘Selection of participants’.

Mothers’ Own Parental Style Upbringing

Numbers of mothers with different upbringing parenting style dimensions in the 37 participants were:

Authoritative	17.
Authoritarian	10.
Permissive	3.
Uninvolved	7.

Mothers' Own Parental Style Beliefs

Numbers of mothers with different beliefs in parenting style dimensions in the 39 participants were:

Authoritative	10.
Authoritarian	8.
Permissive	7.
Uninvolved	12.

Reliability

Inter-rater Reliability for Videotaping

All the videotaped interaction of the mothers and children was coded by the experimenter. In addition, 25% of the videotapes were randomly classified by an independent coder. Inter-rater reliability was computed by the formula of: $\text{Agreements} / (\text{Agreements} + \text{Disagreements}) \times 100/1$ (with agreements plus disagreements being all the possibilities for agreement).

Preschoolers' emotional behaviour. For the preschoolers' emotional behaviour at Time One, the inter-rater reliability was 78.65% (kappa .74). At Time Two, the reliability for coding was 94.29% (Cohen's kappa .93).

Mothers' observed parenting styles of warmth and control. For the mothers' parenting style behaviour at Time One, the inter-rater reliability was 91.72% (kappa .90). At Time Two, the reliability of the coding was 99.82% (kappa .99).

Inter-rater Reliability for Audiotaping

All the audiotaped narratives of the mothers and children were coded by the experimenter. In addition, 25% of the narratives were randomly classified by an independent coder. Inter-rater reliability was computed by the formula of: $\text{Agreements} / (\text{Agreements} + \text{Disagreements}) \times 100/1$ (with agreements plus disagreements being all the possibilities for agreement).

Emotional language. For the children's narratives for Time One, the inter-rater reliability for past conversations was 98.35%, for units of information 92.40% (Cohens kappa .90), and for emotional language it was 91.96% (kappa .99). At Time Two, the reliability for past conversations was 98.49%, for units of information 91.60% (kappa .90), and for emotional language it was 96.83% (kappa .96).

For the mothers' narratives at Time One, the inter-rater reliability for past conversations was 98.35%, for units of information 90.67% (Cohens kappa .89), and for emotional language it was 94.32% (kappa .92). At Time Two, the reliability for past conversations was 98.49%, for units of information 90.08% (kappa .88), and for emotional language it was 91.07% (kappa .88).

Narrative elicitation style. For the children's narratives at Time One, the reliability for the classification of consequences was 88.85% (Cohens kappa .85). At Time Two, the reliability for consequences was 93.57% (kappa .92).

For the mothers' narratives at Time One, the inter-rater reliability for the classification of consequences was 92.00% (Cohens kappa .89). The reliability at Time Two was 86.34% (kappa .81).

Results

The findings of this study will be presented in three broad categories, viz.: descriptive analyses, correlational analyses and regression analyses. Time One represents the original study and Time Two represents the twelve-month followup. The descriptive section will contain the mean frequencies of the children's behaviour and the children's and mothers' language variables for the parenting style dimensions. The correlation section will contain the correlations among the children's variables and the mothers' variables.

The regression category will begin with results regarding the influence exerted on the children's variables by the mothers' parental warmth and control as well as their parenting style dimensions. Then, it will contain results concerned with the impact that the mothers' variables (at Time One) exert on the children's variables measured twelve months later.

Table 5.1

Mean Frequencies of the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and the Mothers' Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount) for the Mothers' Observed, Upbringing and Beliefs Parenting Style Dimensions (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) at Time One (48 month-old) and at Time Two (60 month-old).

Variable		Behaviour Posit	Children's Language			Mothers' Language		
			Posit	Unique	Amount	Posit	Unique	Amount
Mothers':								
<u>Observation:</u>								
Auth/ive	T-1	7.92	0.57	5.75	13.25	3.43	8.67	17.05
	T-2	9.17	0.81	4.17	11.24	1.89	8.83	15.75
Auth/ian	T-1	4.84	0.40	4.67	18.36	1.96	8.33	17.58
	T-2	8.64	0.72	4.25	17.47	1.29	6.92	17.20
Permissive	T-1	6.38	1.83	4.50	20.17	3.78	8.67	19.02
	T-2	8.91	1.28	5.67	24.50	2.56	8.00	17.97
Uninvolved	T-1	6.55	1.33	5.86	11.92	4.52	8.29	12.52
	T-2	8.99	1.86	7.29	17.39	2.95	5.86	25.97
<u>Upbringing:</u>								
Auth/ive	T-1	5.82	0.84	4.59	15.27	3.76	8.59	17.30
	T-2	9.37	1.27	4.71	19.37	1.71	7.59	21.80
Auth/ian	T-1	7.20	1.50	5.70	18.19	3.78	9.00	17.12
	T-2	9.43	1.27	5.70	17.85	2.03	8.70	18.05
Permissive	T-1	7.05	1.22	2.00	12.60	4.89	5.67	13.96
	T-2	9.23	2.22	6.00	12.87	7.67	9.33	16.37
Uninvolved	T-1	6.45	-0.14	7.43	14.92	0.38	8.71	15.71
	T-2	9.40	-0.19	4.43	9.54	0.26	4.86	12.10
<u>Beliefs:</u>								
Auth/ive	T-1	6.32	0.65	4.90	15.25	3.47	8.80	14.20
	T-2	8.77	0.27	6.50	17.27	1.38	9.90	16.14
Auth/ian	T-1	6.29	0.52	7.25	21.11	2.69	9.37	18.78
	T-2	9.15	1.96	5.50	16.20	1.75	6.25	19.39
Permissive	T-1	6.27	0.62	3.14	12.42	2.52	7.57	16.82
	T-2	9.50	1.14	3.57	12.95	3.62	8.43	15.43
Uninvolved	T-1	6.65	1.42	5.33	14.62	3.76	8.17	17.28
	T-2	8.56	1.06	4.33	18.42	1.75	5.83	21.70

N = 37. 'Posit' = Positivity, 'Unique' = Uniqueness; T-1 = Time One; T-2 = Time Two; Auth/ive = Authoritative; Auth/ian = Authoritarian.

Descriptive Analyses

The means of the children's and mothers' emotional variables for observed, upbringing and beliefs parenting style dimensions are shown in Table 5.1 for Time One and for Time Two. The children's variables are emotional behaviour (positivity), and emotional

Table 5.2

Correlations of the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), for the Mothers' Parental Warmth and Control (Observation, Upbringing and Beliefs) at Time One (48 month-old) and at Time Two (60 month-old).

Variable	Behaviour Positivity		Positivity		Children's Emotional Language			
	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2	Uniqueness		Amount	
					T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2
Mothers:								
<u>Observation:</u>								
Warmth	.51***	.42**	-.12	-.02	.06	-.03	-.23	-.09
Control	.11	-.02	-.24	-.23	-.09	.12	.00	.01
<u>Upbringing:</u>								
Warmth	-.02	-.20	.04	.44**	-.14	.02	-.08	.27
Control	.05	-.07	.05	.17	.15	.11	.22	.23
<u>Beliefs:</u>								
Warmth	-.20	-.32	.02	.02	-.12	.02	.04	-.03
Control	-.18	-.01	-.07	.22	.10	.21	.12	.12

N = 37. T-1 = Time One; T-2 = Time Two.

**p* < 0.05

***p* < 0.01

****p* < 0.001

language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). The mothers' variables are emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). Language variables for each individual were a mean of their three narratives. Parenting style dimensions were authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved.

There was no early discernable pattern in either the children's or the mothers' means for the observed, upbringing or beliefs parenting style dimensions.

Correlational Analyses

Correlations of the Preschoolers' for Parental Warmth and Control

The correlations of the children's emotional variables for the mothers' parental warmth and control are shown in Table 5.2 for Time One and for Time Two. The children's are emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). The mothers' parental warmth and control variables are from observation, upbringing and beliefs.

Emotional behaviour (positivity). At both time periods, children who were more positive in their emotional behaviour had positive associations with mothers who were observed to display more warmth.

Emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). There were no correlations at Time One. At Time Two, children who used more positive emotional language had positive associations with mothers who perceived that there had been more warmth in their own upbringing.

The significant correlations of the children's variables with parental warmth and control in Table 4.2 could have been through chance alone.

Correlations of the Preschoolers' for the Mothers' Variables

Table 5.3 shows the correlations of the children's variables for the mothers' variables at Time One and Time Two. The children's variables are emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). The mothers' variables include education, emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount) and observed, upbringing and beliefs parenting style dimensions. Parenting style dimensions are authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved.

Emotional behaviour (positivity). There were no significant correlations between the children's behaviour and their mothers' education or emotional language at either time period.

At Time One, children who were more positive in their emotional behaviour were positively associated with mothers who were observed to be more authoritative in their parenting style. In contrast, these children were negatively associated with mothers who were observed to be more authoritarian in their parenting dimension.

At Time Two, the positivity of children's emotional behaviour was negatively associated with mothers who perceived that their own upbringing had been more authoritative.

Table 5.3

Correlations of the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount) for the Mothers' Education, Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and Observed, Upbringing and Beliefs Parenting Style Dimensions (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) at Time One (48 month-old) and at Time Two (60 month-old).

Variable	Behaviour Positivity		Positivity		Children's Emotional Language			
	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2	Uniqueness		Amount	
	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2	T-1	T-2
Mothers':								
Education	.08	.11	-.18	.21	.03	-.07	-.24	-.17
Language:								
Positivity	-.07	-.02	.49**	.56**	.10	.11	.33*	.05
Uniqueness	.10	.23	-.09	.20	.77**	.41*	.37*	.17
Amount	-.10	-.22	.28	.41*	.22	.34*	.72**	.48**
Parenting Style:								
Observation:								
Auth/ive	.53**	.17	-.11	-.09	.10	-.19	-.16	-.27
Auth/rian	-.53**	-.19	-.17	-.12	-.09	-.17	.14	.04
Perm/ive	-.01	-.01	.21	.05	-.08	.09	.16	.25
Uninv/d	.05	.04	.11	.20	.07	.36*	-.17	.03
Upbringing:								
Auth/ive	-.26	-.46**	-.02	.13	-.14	-.10	-.04	.23
Auth/rian	.21	.29	.21	.12	.08	.18	.16	.04
Perm/ive	.11	.10	.06	.22	-.24	.07	-.09	-.07
Uninv/d	.13	.25	-.27	-.29	.36*	-.08	-.04	-.22
Beliefs:								
Auth/ive	-.04	-.09	-.08	-.24	-.04	.28	-.03	.03
Auth/rian	-.02	.10	-.10	.25	.30	.07	.27	-.01
Perm/ive	-.05	.23	-.07	.05	-.25	-.22	-.16	-.14
Uninv/d	-.03	-.26	.24	.00	.02	-.12	-.03	.10

N = 37. T-1 = Time One; T-2 = Time Two; Auth/ive = Authoritative; Auth/rian = Authoritarian; Perm/ive = Permissive; Uninv/d = Uninvolved.

**p* < 0.05

***p* < 0.01

Emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). There were no significant correlations between the children's language and their mothers' education at either time period.

At both time periods, the children's and the mothers' positivity of emotional language had positive associations. At Time Two, the children's emotional language

positivity had a positive relationship to the mothers' amount of emotional language. The children's and the mothers' emotional language uniqueness were positively associated at both time periods. Also, the children's uniqueness of emotional language had a positive relationship to the mothers' emotional language amount at Time Two. At Time One, the children's amount of emotional language had positive associations with the mothers' emotional language positivity, uniqueness and amount. At Time Two, the children's and the mothers' amounts of emotional language had a positive relationship.

There were no significant correlations of the children's emotional language positivity or amount with the mothers' parenting style dimensions. At Time One, the children's uniqueness of emotional language was positively associated with the the mothers' remembered uninvolved parenting style of upbringing. At Time Two, the children's emotional language uniqueness was positively associated with the mothers' observed uninvolved parenting dimension.

Over one seventh of the correlations of the preschoolers' variables for the mothers' variables in Table 5.3 were significant. A few correlations could have been through chance alone.

Correlations Between the Mothers' Variables

The correlations between the mothers' variables are shown in Table 5.4 for Time One and in Table 5.5 for Time Two. The mothers' variables are education, emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount), and observed, upbringing and beliefs parenting style dimensions (authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved).

Maternal education. There were no correlations between maternal education and the mothers' other variables at Time One or Time Two.

Maternal emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). The mothers' positivity of emotional language had positive associations with their own emotional language

Table 5.4

Correlations Between the Mothers' Education, Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and Observed, Upbringing and Beliefs Parenting Style Dimensions (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) at Time One (48 month-old).

Var	Educ 1.	2.	Language 3.	4.	1.	Observation 2.	3.	4.	1.	Upbringing 2.	3.	4.	1.	2.	Beliefs 3.	4.
1.Educ	-															
<u>Language:</u>																
2.Pos	-.02	-														
3.Uniq	.12	.36*	-													
4.Amt	-.06	.27	.40*	-												
<u>Parenting:</u>																
<u>Observ/n:</u>																
1.A/ve	.19	.04	.03	.03	-											
2.A/rn	-.04	-.24	-.03	.05	-.48**	-										
3.Perm	-.32	.06	.02	.12	-.31	-.30	-									
4.Unv	.12	.17	-.02	-.24	-.33*	-.33*	-.21	-								
<u>Upbring:</u>																
1.A/ve	.06	.12	.03	.06	-.20	.16	.05	-.03	-							
2.A/rn	-.21	.10	.06	.04	.09	-.15	.08	-.02	-.55**	-						
3.Perm	.20	.11	-.20	-.07	.05	-.20	-.13	.31	-.27	-.18	-					
4.Unv	.09	-.39*	.08	.04	.20	.03	-.04	-.23	-.43**	-.28	-.14	-				
<u>Beliefs:</u>																
1.A/ve	.03	.05	.06	-.17	-.16	.25	-.11	.02	-.43**	-.23	-.18	-.17	-			
2.A/rn	.19	-.07	.14	.14	-.10	.21	-.06	-.11	-.11	-.02	-.15	.34*	-.31	-		
3.Perm	.12	-.09	-.09	-.01	.11	-.05	-.01	-.06	-.31	-.01	.39*	.08	-.29	-.25	-	
4.Unv	-.26	.13	-.03	.08	.17	-.31	.19	-.02	-.01	.15	-.01	-.15	-.39*	-.34*	-.31	-

N = 37. Educ = Education; Observ/n = Observation; Upbring = Upbringing; A/ve = Authoritative; A/vn = Authoritarian; Perm = Permissive; Unv = Uninvolved.

**p* < 0.05

***p* < 0.01

Table 5.5

Correlations Between the Mothers' Education, Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and Observed, Upbringing and Beliefs Parenting Style Dimensions (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) at Time Two (60 month-old).

Var	Educ 1.	2.	Language 3.	4.	1.	Observation 2.	3.	4.	1.	Upbringing 2.	3.	4.	1.	2.	Beliefs 3.	4.
1.Educ	-															
<u>Language:</u>																
2.Pos	.24	-														
3.Uniq	.06	.33*	-													
4.Amt	-.12	.02	-.09	-												
<u>Parenting:</u>																
<u>Observ/n:</u>																
1.A/ve	-.19	-.03	.21	-.17	-											
2.A/rn	-.03	-.17	-.09	-.08	-.48**	-										
3.Perm	-.32	.08	.05	-.02	-.31	-.31	-									
4.Unv	.12	.16	-.18	.31	-.34*	-.34*	-.21	-								
<u>Upbring:</u>																
1.A/ve	.07	-.09	.04	.26	-.20	.17	.07	-.05	-							
2.A/rn	-.18	.03	.18	-.04	.12	-.17	.06	.01	-.55**	-						
3.Perm	.20	.61**	.19	-.02	.07	-.20	-.13	.28	-.26	-.17	-					
4.Unv	.07	-.25	-.29	-.25	.18	.04	-.03	-.23	-.43**	-.28	-.14	-				
<u>Beliefs:</u>																
1.A/ve	.02	-.13	.31	-.12	-.17	.24	-.11	.02	.41*	-.19	-.18	-.19	-			
2.A/rn	.21	-.04	-.13	.05	-.09	.22	-.06	-.10	-.04	-.03	-.15	.29	-.32	-		
3.Perm	.14	.31	.09	-.14	.10	-.07	.00	-.03	-.27	-.06	.48**	.11	-.29	-.25	-	
4.Unv	-.33*	-.07	-.26	.25	.12	-.36*	.20	.09	-.08	.21	-.07	-.17	-.42**	-.36*	-.33*	-

N = 37. Educ = Education; Observ/n = Observation; Upbring = Upbringing; A/ve = Authoritative; A/vn = Authoritarian; Perm = Permissive; Unv = Uninvolved.

**p* < 0.05

***n* < 0.01

uniqueness at Time One and Time Two. At Time One, the mothers' uniqueness of emotional language had a positive relationship to their amount of emotional language.

There were no significant correlations between the mothers' emotional language and the observed or beliefs parenting style dimensions at either time periods. The mothers' positivity of emotional language had a negative association with the uninvolved style of upbringing at Time One but a positive association with the permissive style of upbringing at Time Two.

Observed parenting style. There were no significant correlations between the mothers' observed parenting dimensions and their education or their emotional language at either time period.

There were negative correlations within the observed parenting dimensions at both time periods, including: authoritative with authoritarian, authoritative with uninvolved and authoritarian with uninvolved.

There were no significant correlations between the mothers' observed parenting dimensions and their perceived dimensions of upbringing at either time periods. At Time One, there were no correlations with parenting beliefs but at Time Two, the observed authoritarian dimension had a negative correlation with the uninvolved style of beliefs.

Upbringing parenting style. There were no significant correlations between the mothers' parenting dimensions of upbringing and their education at either time period.

At Time One, the mothers' uninvolved style of upbringing had a negative association with their positivity of emotional language. In contrast, the mothers' permissive style of upbringing had a negative relationship to their emotional language positivity at Time Two.

There were negative correlations within the parenting dimensions of upbringing at both time periods, including: authoritative with authoritarian, and authoritative with uninvolved.

There were no significant correlations between the mothers' remembered upbringing and their observed parenting dimensions at either time periods. The mothers' authoritative upbringing was negatively associated with authoritative beliefs at Time One but positively

associated at Time Two. There were positive associations between the mothers' permissive upbringing and their permissive beliefs at both time periods. At Time One, the mothers' uninvolved upbringing was associated with their authoritarian beliefs.

Beliefs parenting style. There were no significant correlations between the mothers' parenting dimension beliefs and their education or their emotional language at either time period.

At Time One and at Time Two, there were negative correlations within the parenting dimensions of beliefs, including: authoritative with uninvolved and authoritarian with uninvolved. Also at Time Two, there was a negative association between permissive and uninvolved beliefs.

There were no correlations between beliefs and observed parenting dimensions at Time One but at Time Two, the uninvolved dimensions of beliefs were negatively associated with the observed authoritarian style. The authoritative style of beliefs was associated with the authoritative style of upbringing negatively at Time One but positively at Time Two. The permissive styles of beliefs and upbringing were positively associated at both time periods. At Time One, the authoritarian style of beliefs had a positive relationship to the uninvolved style of upbringing.

There were more significant correlations among the mothers' variables in Tables 5.4 and 5.5. However, some could have been through chance alone.

Regression Analyses

Multiple Regression Analyses With the Preschoolers' Variables as Dependent Variables

To control for the effect of confounding variables, a series of hierarchical multiple regressions were carried out, as described in Chapter IV, Younger Preschoolers.

Emotional behaviour (positivity). As can be seen in Set One of Table 5.6a, the positivity of children's emotional behaviour was negatively effected by their mothers' age at Time One.

Table 5.6

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Hierarchical Regressions with the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) as the Dependent Variable at Time One (48 month-old) and Time Two (60 month-old).

Independent variables	Dependent variables	
	Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) Time One	Time Two
(a)		
Set One:		
Age (Mother)	-.42**	.13
Set Two:		
Warmth (Observation)	.46*	.48**
Self-esteem (Mother)	.26*	.27
R^2	.50**	.33**
(b)		
Authoritative Parenting Style (Observation)	.33*	.04
Authoritarian Parenting Style (Observation)	-.35*	-.10
Authoritative Parenting Style (Upbringing)	-.14	-.43**
R^2	.40***	.22*

Note: Time One, $n = 37$; Time Two $n = 39$. The dependent variables are scored in a positive direction. The regression co-efficients for Set One variables were obtained with only the one variable entered. The R^2 represents the total variance explained with all variables entered.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

At both time periods, children who were more positive in their emotional behaviour had mothers who had more parental warmth in their observed behaviour (see Table 5.6a). These were very strong regressions that encompassed one-half and one-third respectively of the children's emotional behaviour.

Further regressions were carried out to clarify the parenting style dimensions (see Table 5.6b). At Time One, the emotional behaviour positivity of children was positively effected by their mothers' observed authoritative parenting style, and negatively effected by the observed authoritarian style. These were moderate regressions that captured two-fifths of the children's emotional behaviour. At Time Two, the children's positivity of emotional

Table 5.7

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Regressions with the Preschoolers' Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount) as the Dependent Variables at Time One (48 month-old) and Time Two (60 month-old).

Independent variables	Dependent variables	
	Emotional Language [Positivity] Time One	Time Two
(a)		
Mothers' Emotional Language [Positivity]	.49**	.56***
R^2	.24**	.32***
	Emotional Language [Uniqueness]	
	Time One	Time Two
(b)		
Mothers' Emotional Language [Uniqueness]	.77***	.41*
R^2	.59***	.17*
	Emotional Language [Amount]	
	Time One	Time Two
(c)		
Mothers' Emotional Language [Amount]	.72***	.48**
R^2	.52***	.23**

Note: Time One, $n = 37$; Time Two, $n = 37$. The dependent variables are scored in a positive direction. The R^2 represents the total variance explained with all variables entered.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

behaviour was negatively effected by their mothers' authoritative style of upbringing. Although this was a stronger regression, it only encompassed one-fifth of the children's emotional behaviour.

Emotional language (positivity, uniqueness, and amount). As can be seen in Table 5.7, the mothers' positivity of emotional language had positive regressional effects on the positivity of their children's emotional language at both time periods. These were both strong regressions, capturing one-quarter and one-third respectively of the children's

Table 5.8

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Hierarchical Regressions with the Preschoolers' Emotional Language (Uniqueness) as the Dependent Variable at Time One (48 month-old) and Time Two (60 month-old).

Independent variables	Dependent variables	
	Emotional Language (Uniqueness) Time One	Time Two
Uninvolved Parenting Style [Observation]	.16	.36*
Uninvolved Parenting Style (Upbringing)	.40*	.01
R^2	.15	.13

Note: Time One, $n=37$; Time Two, $n=37$. The dependent variables are scored in a positive direction. The R^2 represents the total variance explained with all variables entered.

* $p < 0.05$

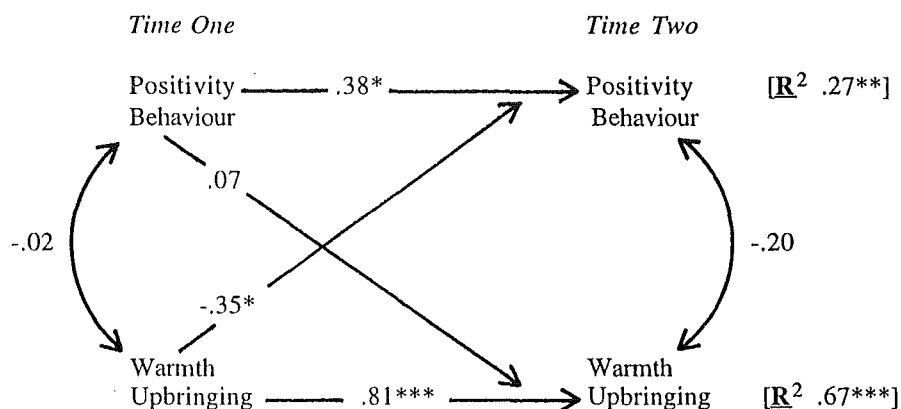
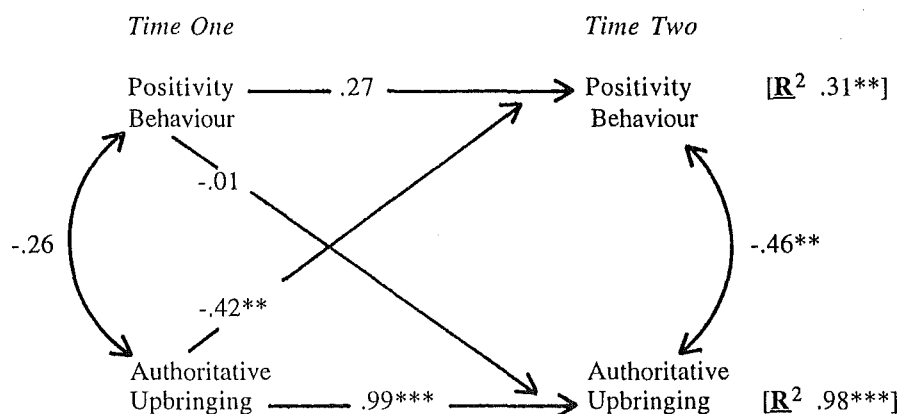
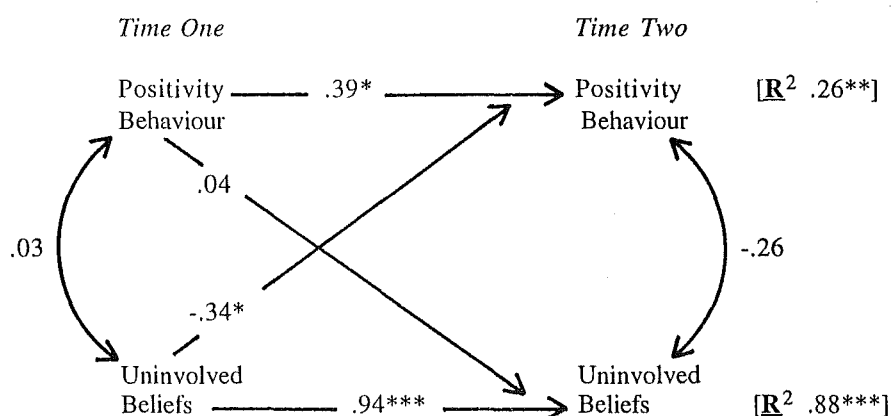
emotional language. At both time periods, the mothers' uniqueness of emotional language positively regressional effected their children's uniqueness of emotional language. The first regression was very strong, as it captured three-fifths of the children's uniqueness but the second moderate regression only encompassed one-sixth of the children's uniqueness of emotional language. At Time One and at Time Two, the mothers' amount of emotional language had a positive regressional effect on their children's emotional language amount. The Time One regression was very strong and captured over half of the children's amount of emotional language. The Time Two regression was strong, and encompassed nearly one-quarter of the children's emotional language amount.

The mothers' emotional language obviously had an effect on their children's emotional language. Multiple regressions that did not include the mothers' emotional language were then carried out with the mothers' parenting style dimensions. Although the mothers' language positivity effected their children's language positivity and amount, there were no regressional effects from parental warmth and control or from parenting dimensions.

Table 5.8 shows that the mothers' uninvolved parental style of upbringing had a positive regression on their children's uniqueness of emotional language at Time One. At Time Two, the mothers' observed uninvolved style had a positive regression on their

Figure 5.1

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Multiple Regression with the Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity), and Parental Warmth (Upbringing) and Parenting Styles: Authoritative (Upbringing) and Uninvolved (Beliefs) at Time Two (60 month-old) as Dependent Variables.

(a)**(b)****(c)**

Note. Time One, $n = 37$; and Time Two (12 month followup), $n = 37$. The multiple R^2 for each regression equation are shown in brackets. The single-headed arrows show the regression co-efficients, while the double-headed arrows show the correlations.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

children's emotional language uniqueness. Although these were moderate regressions, they only captured one-seventh of the children's uniqueness of emotional language.

Cross-lagged Regression Analyses for Preschoolers' and Mothers' Variables at Time Two

As described in Study One, cross-lagged regression analyses was used in order to investigate directional effects twelve months later. As can be seen in Figures 5.1 to 5.3, the mothers' parental warmth and parenting style variables demonstrated stability from Time One to Time Two (co-efficients from .81 to .99). The exception was parental control in Figure 5.2c which had a very low stability (co-efficient -.06). As shown in Figure 5.2a, the mothers' positivity of emotional language had a weaker stability (co-efficient .32). These children were 48 months-old at Time One and 60 months-old at Time Two. While their positivity of emotional behaviour had a reasonable stability for age (co-efficients .27 and .39), their uniqueness of emotional language had a higher stability for age (co-efficients .47 and .51). However, the children's positivity of emotional language had weak stability (co-efficients .13 to .24).

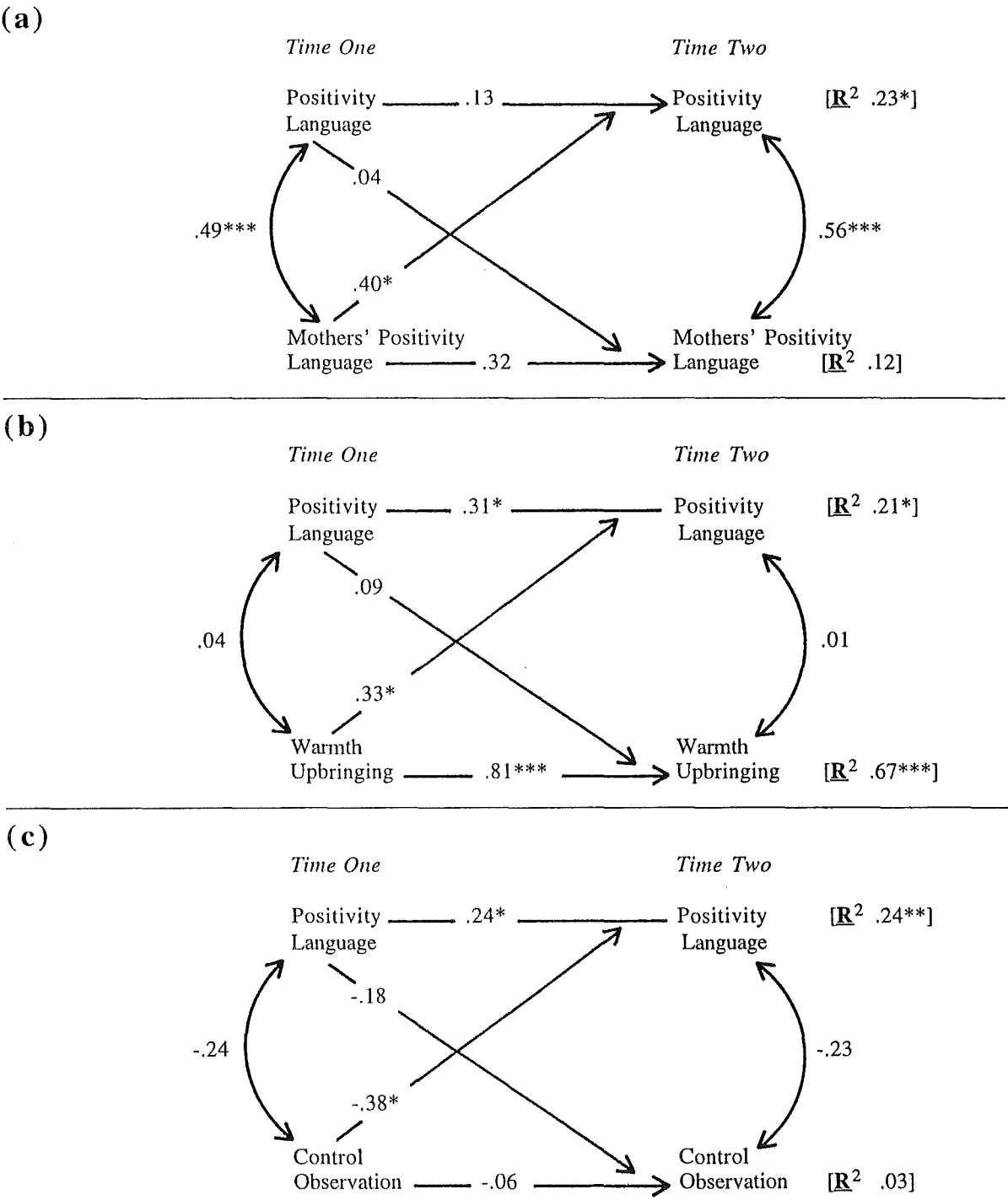
These analyses determined whether a given variable (e. g., authoritative parental style of upbringing) at Time One was associated with a change in another variable (e. g., level of positivity of emotional behaviour) over the 12 month period. The crucial regression co-efficients are those shown in the diagonal arrows.

Emotional behaviour (positivity). Mothers who remembered more warmth in their own upbringing at Time One decreased the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour at Time Two (see Figure 5.1a). This was a strong regression that involved over one-quarter of the children's emotional behaviour.

As shown in Figure 5.1b, the mothers who perceived that their parental upbringing was more authoritative at Time One decreased the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour at Time Two. This was a strong regression that encompassed nearly one-third of the children's emotional behaviour.

Figure 5.2

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Multiple Regression with the Preschoolers' Emotional Language (Positivity), and Mothers' Emotional Language (Positivity) and Parental: Warmth (Upbringing) and Control (Observation) at Time Two (60 month-old) as Dependent Variables.

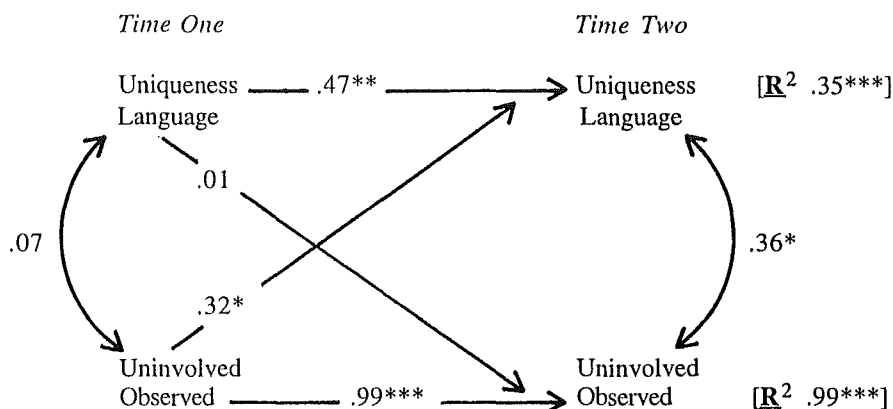
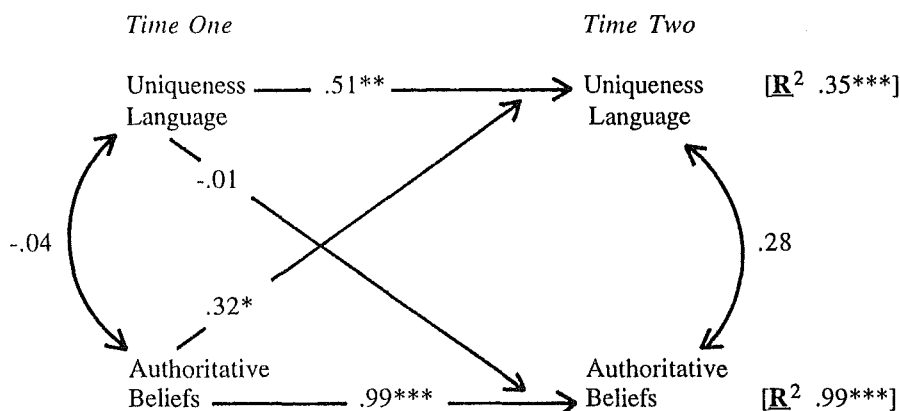


Note. Time One, $n = 37$; and Time Two (12 month followup), $n = 37$. The multiple R^2 for each regression equation are shown in brackets. The single-headed arrows show the regression co-efficients, while the double-headed arrows show the correlations.

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$
*** $p < 0.001$

Figure 5.3

Standardized Regression Co-efficients from Multiple Regression with the Preschoolers' Emotional Language (Uniqueness), and Parenting Styles: Uninvolved (Observation) and Authoritative (Beliefs) at Time Two (60 month-old) as Dependent Variables.

(a)**(b)**

Note. Time One, $n = 37$; and Time Two (12 month followup), $n = 37$. The multiple R^2 for each regression equation are shown in brackets. The single-headed arrows show the regression co-efficients, while the double-headed arrows show the correlations.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

Mothers who believed in being more uninvolved at Time One decreased the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour at Time Two (see Figure 5.1c). This moderate regression captured one-quarter of the children's positivity of emotional behaviour.

Emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). As shown in Figure 5.2a, the mothers' positivity of emotional language had a positive effect on their children's emotional language positivity. This moderate regression captured nearly one-quarter of the children's positivity of emotional language. Although the mothers' amount of emotional

language regressionally effected their children's uniqueness and amount respectively at Time One (see Table 5.7c), there was no cross-lagged regressional effect at Time Two.

Mothers, who at Time One perceived there was more parental warmth in their own upbringing, increased the positivity of their children's emotional language at Time Two (see Figure 5.2b). This moderate regression encompassed over one-fifth of the children's emotional language positivity. As seen in Figure 5.2c, mothers who were observed to use more control at Time One decreased the positivity of their children's emotional language at Time Two. This strong regression involved nearly one-quarter of the children's positivity of emotional language.

As shown in Figure 5.3a, mothers who were observed to be more uninvolved at Time One increased the uniqueness of their children's emotional language at Time Two. Also, mothers who believed in being more authoritative in their parenting at Time One increased their children's emotional language uniqueness at Time Two. Both of these moderate regressions encompassed over a third of the children's uniqueness of emotional language.

Discussion

Influence of Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control

The hypotheses were that the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control would have a longitudinal influence over as well as a concurrent relationship with their preschoolers' emotional language and emotional behaviour, viz.: (a) this would be positive if the parenting styles were authoritative or had warmth and control together, or (b) this would be negative if the parenting style was non-authoritative or had no warmth or no control. These parenting styles of warmth and control were obtained from different media. The 'observed' was from the videotaped interaction of mother-child, while the mothers' parental 'upbringing' and parental 'beliefs' were obtained from responses in questionnaires.

Discussion will begin with the collinearity of the mothers' variables. Then the results and hypotheses will be discussed under the preschoolers' variables, namely: emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount). This will be followed by a summary of the longitudinal results that supported the theories of Harré

(1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) and Vygotsky (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994). Finally, the influence of parenting styles of warmth and control across the different media of videotape, questionnaires and audiotape will be compared and discussed.

Mothers' Variables

The mothers' variables were education, emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount), and the observed, upbringing and beliefs parenting style dimensions (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved).

Education. The mothers' education had a negative relationship to the uninvolved parenting dimension of beliefs when the children were older, as would be expected.

Emotional language. At both time periods, the mothers' uniqueness of emotional language had positive associations to their positivity of emotional language. As well, there was an earlier relationship between emotional language uniqueness and amount. These inter-associations between the mothers' emotional language would be expected.

Emotional language associations with parenting style dimension differed in the two time periods. As would be expected, the mothers' positivity of emotional language had a negative relationship to the uninvolved (non-authoritative) dimension of upbringing when the children were younger. However, the mothers' permissive (non-authoritative) dimension of upbringing had a positive relationship to their emotional language positivity at the later date. This was not expected but may possibly be because the permissive dimension has warmth.

Parenting style dimensions. Within each of the observed, upbringing and beliefs sets of dimensions, the authoritative dimensions had negative associations with the authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved dimensions, as would be expected.

As well as the above, there was a positive association between the authoritative dimensions, i. e.: upbringing with beliefs, at the later time. Also, there were positive associations between non-authoritative dimensions, i. e.: uninvolved upbringing with authoritarian beliefs, at the earlier time; and permissive upbringing with permissive beliefs, at

both time periods. All of the above parenting style dimension relationships were as expected. However, there were unexpected negative associations between the authoritative dimensions of upbringing and beliefs, earlier; and the observed authoritarian dimension with the uninvolved beliefs dimension, later.

Emotional Behaviour: Positivity

Emotional behaviour was coded from the videotaped interaction of the mother-child dyads and is a continuum of positivity.

Observed. There were concurrent and longitudinal relationships between observed parental warmth and control, and children's positivity of emotional behaviour but the concurrent results were contrary to the hypotheses. Parental warmth and control together equal authoritative parenting while warmth or control alone equal non-authoritative parenting. Surprisingly, the mothers' who displayed warmth alone (non-authoritative) had positive associations with their children's emotional behaviour at both times. These were endorsed by strong regression effects at both times, that involved one-half and one-third of the children's positivity of emotional behaviour, respectively.

There were concurrent associations and effects from the observed parenting style dimensions. As expected, the mothers who were more authoritative in their parenting had a very strong positive association with their children's emotional behaviour at the earlier time. At the same time, the mothers who were more authoritarian (non-authoritative) in their parenting had a strong negative association on two-fifths of their children's positivity of emotional behaviour. These two associations were endorsed by moderate regression effects that captured a medium amount of the children's emotional behaviour.

As hypothesised, the concurrent results on behaviour positivity included positive effects from authoritative parenting and negative effects from non-authoritative parenting. Unexpectedly, parental warmth alone (non-authoritative) had positive concurrent effects. Previous research has shown that the mothers' authoritative parenting styles with warmth and control have had an association concurrently with their children's positive emotional behaviour (Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Steinberg et al., 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991) and

longitudinally (Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992; Baumrind, 1991; Brook et al., 1988). In contrast, the mothers' non-authoritative parenting with no warmth or no control has had an association concurrently with their children's negative emotional behaviour (Miller et al., 1993; Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Lamborn et al., 1991) and longitudinally (Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984; Baumrind, 1991).

Upbringing. There were no concurrent associations or effects with parental warmth or control. However, the one longitudinal relationship supported the hypothesis. Mothers who remembered parental warmth alone (non-authoritative) from childhood had a moderate negative influence on over a quarter of their children's emotional behaviour. This supported the hypothesis in that the non-authoritative warmth directionally decreased the positivity of a small amount of the children's emotional behaviour over the twelve months.

The concurrent and longitudinal results from the remembered parenting style dimensions of upbringing were contrary to the hypothesis. Surprisingly, mothers who recalled more authoritative parenting in childhood had a strong negative association with their children's positivity of emotional behaviour, at the later date. This was endorsed by a strong regression effect that captured over one-fifth of the children's positivity of behaviour. Also contrary to the hypothesis, these mothers who earlier recalled a more authoritative upbringing had a strong negative effect on one-third of their children's emotional behaviour positivity at the later time. This directional decrease in positivity by remembered authoritative parenting over the twelve months covered a medium amount of their children's emotional behaviour.

As hypothesised, mothers who recalled parental warmth alone (non-authoritative) from their childhood decreased their children's positivity of behaviour over the year. Contrary to the hypotheses, authoritative upbringing from the mothers' childhood had a negative effect on, as well as a longitudinal decrease in, their children's positivity of emotional behaviour. It is apparent that parenting styles from the mothers' remembered upbringing have had an effect on their preschoolers' emotional behaviour. Research has shown that non-authoritative parenting styles remembered from childhood have had an effect

on depression (Crook et al., 1981; Whitbeck et al., 1992) and on present parenting styles (Elder et al., 1984; Vermulst et al., 1991).

Beliefs. The mothers' parental beliefs did not have any concurrent association or effect on their children's emotional behaviour. However, as hypothesised, there was a directional decrease in positivity over twelve months that involved over one-quarter of the children's emotional behaviour. Mothers who earlier believed being uninvolved or non-authoritative had a moderate negative effect on the positivity of their children's emotional behaviour at the later time.

As hypothesised, the beliefs mothers had about non-authoritative parenting had a longitudinal negative effect on their preschoolers' emotional behaviour. Previous research has shown a relationship between parental beliefs and the remembered parenting practices (Simons et al., 1992; Whitbeck et al., 1992; Vermulst et al., 1991).

Overall, the positivity of the children's emotional behaviour was affected in different ways by the mothers' parenting that was observed, remembered or believed in. It was hypothesised that authoritative parenting (warm and control) would have a positive effect and non-authoritative parenting (no warmth and/or control) would have a negative effect.

Observed: As hypothesised, the effects were positive from authoritative parenting and negative from authoritarian parenting (non-authoritarian). Unexpectedly, parental warmth alone (non-authoritarian) had a positive effect.

Upbringing: As expected, there was a positive effect from authoritative parenting and a negative one from parental warmth alone (non-authoritarian). Surprisingly, authoritative parenting also had a negative effect.

Beliefs: As hypothesised, there was a negative effect from uninvolved parenting (non-authoritarian).

Emotional Language: Positivity

Emotional language positivity is a mean of the children's three narratives with positive minus negative making a continuum of positivity.

As expected, the mothers' positivity of emotional language had a positive association with the children's language positivity at both time periods. This was endorsed by strong regression effects involving one-quarter and one-third respectively of the children's emotional language. Also, there was a strong directional increase over twelve months that involved nearly one-quarter of the children's positivity emotional language. The mothers' positivity of emotional language at the earlier time had a strong positive effect on their children's emotional language positivity at the later time.

Also, the mothers' amount of emotional language had a positive association with the children's language positivity at the later date.

Observed. As hypothesised, there was a moderate directional decrease over twelve months that involved nearly one-quarter of the children's positivity emotional language. The mothers' parental control alone (non-authoritative) at the earlier time had a negative effect on their children's emotional language positivity at the later time.

There was no concurrent association or effect on the positivity of the preschoolers' emotional language from the mothers' observed parenting style dimensions.

Upbringing. Remembered parental warmth or control results were both contrary to the hypotheses. At the later date, the mothers' remembered warmth alone (non-authoritative) of upbringing had a positive association with their preschoolers' emotional language positivity. Also, the mothers' warmth alone (non-authoritative) from the earlier date had a moderate positive effect on their children's emotional language positivity at the later date. This directional increase (instead of decrease) over twelve months captured one-fifth of the children's positivity of emotional language.

There was no concurrent association or effect on the positivity of the preschoolers' emotional language from the mothers' remembered parenting style dimensions.

Beliefs. There were no concurrent or longitudinal associations or effects.

As would be expected, the mothers' own emotional language positivity had a strong effect on their children's positivity of emotional language. As hypothesised, the observed non-authoritative parental control of the mothers decreased their children's positivity of emotional language over a year. Unexpectedly, the remembered non-authoritative parental warmth of the mothers had a positive association with, as well as a decrease over a year in, their children positivity of emotional language. Miller and Sperry (1987) found an association between the mothers' negative language and their daughters' later verbal justification of negative emotional behaviour. These mothers were observed when endeavouring to socialise their preschoolers' anger and aggression with respect to the norms of their culture and their own upbringing.

In summary, the positivity of the children's emotional language was affected in different ways by the mothers' parenting that was observed or remembered.

Observed: As hypothesised, there was a negative effect from parental control alone (non-authoritarian).

Upbringing: Unexpectedly, there were positive effects from parental warmth alone (non-authoritarian).

Emotional Language: Uniqueness

Emotional language uniqueness comprises the total of unique positive and negative emotional language in the children's three narratives.

The children's uniqueness of emotional language had strong positive associations with the mothers' emotional language amount at the earlier time and the mothers' language uniqueness at both times. The latter was followed by very strong regressional effects on three-fifths and one-sixth respectively of the children's uniqueness of emotional language.

Observed. There were no associations or effects on the children's uniqueness of emotional language from the mothers' observed parental warmth or control.

The concurrent and longitudinal results from the mothers' observed parenting dimensions were contrary to the hypotheses. Surprisingly, mothers who displayed more

uninvolved (non-authoritative) parenting had a positive association with their children's emotional language uniqueness at the later date. This was endorsed by a moderate positive regressional effect at the same time. Again contrary to the hypothesis, the mothers who were uninvolved at the earlier date had a moderate positive effect on over one-third of the uniqueness of their children's emotional language at the later time. This meant that the children's vocabulary was increased (instead of decreased) over the twelve months.

Upbringing. There were no associations or effects for parental warmth and control.

Contrary to the hypothesis, there was a positive association with the mothers' uninvolved (non-authoritative) dimension at the earlier date. This was endorsed by a strong positive regressional effect at the same time.

Beliefs. There were no concurrent associations or effects for parental warmth and control or for parenting style dimensions.

However, as expected, the mothers' authoritative parenting dimension from the earlier date had a moderate positive effect on over one-third of the uniqueness of their children's emotional language at the later time. This meant that the children's vocabulary was increased over the twelve months.

As expected, the mothers' uniqueness of emotional language had positive effects on their children's emotional language uniqueness. Contrary to the hypotheses, the mothers' uninvolved non-authoritative parenting dimension that was observed and remembered from childhood had positive effects on their children's vocabulary of emotional language. Also, the mothers' observed non-authoritative uninvolved parenting increased their children's vocabulary of emotional language over a year. As expected, the mothers' beliefs in authoritative parenting increased the uniqueness of their children's emotional language over a year. Previous research has shown a longitudinal relationship between the earlier speech of the mothers and the range of their children's later vocabulary (Kuebli et al., 1995).

In summary, the uniqueness of the children's emotional language was affected in different ways by the mothers' parenting that was observed, remembered or believed in.

Observed: Unexpectedly, there were positive effects from uninvolved parenting (non-authoritarian).

Upbringing: Surprisingly, there were positive effects from uninvolved parenting (non-authoritarian).

Beliefs: As hypothesised, there was a positive effect from authoritative parenting.

Emotional Language: Amount

Emotional language amount comprises the mean percentage of emotional language in the children's narratives in comparison to other units of information.

The children's amount of emotional language had very strong positive associations with the mothers' emotional language amount at both time periods. These were endorsed very strong regressional effects on over one-half and nearly one-quarter respectively of the children's amount of emotional language.

The mothers' emotional language positivity and their uniqueness also had moderate associations with the children's amount of emotional language at the earlier date. All of the above associations and effects were as would be expected for the children's emotional language amount.

No concurrent or longitudinal association or effect was found between the preschoolers' amount of emotional language and either the mothers' parental warmth and control or their parenting style dimensions. This was surprising, as longitudinal research has shown that mothers who talked more about emotions with girls had daughters who later spoke more about emotions than did boys (Dunn et al., 1987; Kuebli et al., 1995). Also, mothers who earlier spoke more about evaluation (including emotional words) to their children had preschoolers who later spoke more about evaluation (Fivush, 1991; McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Haden et al., 1997).

Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour and Language: Summary of Results

All the above longitudinal results in emotional behaviour and emotional language supported Harré's (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) theory of the social construction of emotion and Vygotsky's (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interactionist theory of emotions. In Harré's theory of the social construction of emotions, the belief system of the culture concerning emotions is maintained and transmitted from the mother to child by means of language. To support this theory, longitudinal research must show that the mother's norms about emotions and emotional language were assimilated by her child as shown in later narratives. For Vygotsky's social interaction theory of emotion, the interpersonal speech between adult and child becomes transformed or internalised over the ZPD into intrapersonal speech of the child. To support this theory, longitudinal research must show that the earlier emotional speech of the mother with her child was internalised by the child as reflected in later speech.

The longitudinal changes over twelve months of the present research supported both Harré's and Vygotsky's theories. These cross-lag regressions ranged in strength from moderate (.32 to .38) to strong (.40 to .42) and covered a small (one-fifth) to medium (one-third) part of the children's variable. Although most of these longitudinal changes are over a small amount of the children's emotional behaviour and language, they can be attributed to the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control. It was hypothesised that authoritative parenting would have positive effects while the non-authoritative parenting would have negative effects. Some of these longitudinal results are not consistent with these hypotheses, as shown in the following summary.

Emotional behaviour: positivity.

(as hypothesised)

1. Moderate decrease in positivity by remembered parental warmth (non-authoritative) involving a small amount of emotional behaviour.
2. Moderate decrease in positivity by beliefs in uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative) involving a small amount of emotional behaviour.

(against hypotheses)

1. Strong decrease in positivity by remembered authoritative parenting involving a medium amount of emotional behaviour.

Emotional language: positivity.

(as hypothesised)

1. Moderate decrease in positivity by observed parental control (non-authoritative) involving a small amount of emotional language.

(against hypotheses)

1. Moderate increase in positivity by remembered parental warmth (non-authoritative) involving a small amount of emotional language.

Emotional language: uniqueness.

(as hypothesised)

1. Moderate increase in uniqueness by beliefs in authoritative parenting involving a medium amount of emotional language.

(against hypotheses)

1. Moderate increase in uniqueness by observed uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative) involving a medium amount of emotional language.

Across Different Media

The focus is on the influence of the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control across different mediums on the children's variables of emotional language (on audiotape) and emotional behaviour (on videotape). This will be discussed under the parenting styles of warmth and control, namely: observed (videotape), upbringing (questionnaire) and beliefs (questionnaire).

Observed (videotape). The mothers' observed parenting styles had concurrent effects on their children's positivity of emotional behaviour. This was to be expected, as the emotional behaviour was coded from the interaction of mother-child dyads on the videotape. These observed parenting styles also had concurrent effects on the children's emotional language uniqueness as well as longitudinal effects on the children's emotional language positivity and uniqueness. This meant that the mothers' parenting styles observed on videotape taken at university had an effect over their children's narratives that were elicited at another time at home on audiotape.

Upbringing (questionnaire). The mothers' parental upbringing had concurrent and longitudinal effects on their children's positivity of emotional behaviour. This meant that questionnaires completed by the mothers at home had an effect on the children's emotional behaviour captured on videotape at another time. The mothers' parental upbringing had concurrent effects on their children's emotional language positivity and uniqueness as well as longitudinal effects on their children's positivity of emotional language. This meant that questionnaires completed by the mothers at home had an effect on the children's emotional language uniqueness that was elicited at another time at home on audiotape.

Beliefs (questionnaire). The mothers' beliefs in parenting had a longitudinal effect on children's positivity of emotional behaviour. This meant that questionnaires completed by the mothers at home had an effect on the children's emotional behaviour captured on videotape at another time. Also, the mothers' beliefs in parenting had a longitudinal effect on their children's uniqueness of emotional language. This meant that questionnaires completed by the mothers at home had an effect on the children's emotional language amount that was elicited at another time at home on audiotape.

In summary, the fact that the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control from one medium have affected their children's variables in another medium gives strength to this research.

Observed (videotape): The mothers' parenting styles have affected their children's emotional behaviour (videotape) and emotional language positivity and uniqueness (both audiotape).

Upbringing (questionnaire): The mothers' parenting styles have affected their children's emotional behaviour (videotape) and emotional language positivity and uniqueness (audiotape).

Beliefs (questionnaire): The mothers' parenting styles have affected their children's emotional behaviour (videotape) and emotional language uniqueness (audiotape).

CHAPTER VI: COMPARISON OF PRESCHOOLERS

Influence of Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control

The hypotheses were that the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control would have a longitudinal influence on as well as a concurrent relationship with their preschoolers' emotional language, and emotional behaviour, viz.: (a) this would be positive if the parenting styles were authoritative or had warmth and control together, or (b) this would be negative if the parenting style was non-authoritative or had either no warmth or control.

Clearly, the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control did have an influence on the younger and older preschoolers' variables: both concurrently and longitudinally. However, these results were mixed as about half were contrary to the hypothesis.

As well, differences were found between the younger and the older preschoolers regarding the type of influence as well as the source of the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control (as seen in Tables 6.1 and 6.2). The younger preschoolers were 30 months old at the beginning of the study and 42 months old at the later time. The older preschoolers were 48 months old at the earlier time and twelve months later they were 60 months old.

The comparison of the influence of the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control on the younger and the older preschoolers is shown in Tables 6.1 and 6.2. Table 6.1 has the number of significant concurrent (Time One and Time Two) and longitudinal (Time One to Time Two) relationships of the younger and older preschoolers' emotional behaviour and emotional language to the mothers' parenting styles of warmth and control (observed, upbringing and beliefs) that supported the hypotheses. Table 6.2 has the number of significant concurrent and longitudinal relationships that were contrary to the hypotheses. Firstly, these results will be presented for the younger preschoolers and then for the older preschoolers. Finally, a comparison of the younger and older groups will be presented.

Table 6.1

Number of Significant Results that Supported the Hypotheses: Concurrent and Longitudinal Relationships Between the Younger and Older Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and the Mothers' Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control (Observation, Upbringing and Beliefs).

Variable	Younger Preschoolers			Older Preschoolers		
	Concurrent T-1	Concurrent T-2	Long/l	Concurrent T-1	Concurrent T-2	Long/l
BEHAVIOUR (positivity)	OBSERV Warmth) Control) positive	OBSERV Warmth) Control)x2 positive		OBSERV Auth/ive)x2 positive		
	OBSERV Auth/tive)x2 positive			OBSERV Auth/ian)x2 negative		
	UPBRING Warmth) Control) positive					UPBRING Warmth negative
	BELIEFS Warmth negative	BELIEFS Auth/ive positive	BELIEFS Uninvolv negative			BELIEFS Uninvolv negative
LANGUAGE (positivity)						OBSERV Control negative
LANGUAGE (uniqueness)		OBSERV Uninvolv)x2 negative	OBSERV Uninvolv negative			
		UPBRING Warmth negative	UPBRING Control negative			
						BELIEFS Auth/ive positive
Language (amount)						

Long/l = Longitudinal; T-1 = Time One; T-2 = Time Two; Observ = Observed; Upbring = Upbringing; Auth/ive = Authoritative; Auth/ian = Authoritarian; Uninvolv = Uninvolved.

Table 6.2

Number of Significant Results that were Contrary to the Hypotheses: Concurrent and Longitudinal Relationships Between the Younger and Older Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour (Positivity) and Emotional Language (Positivity, Uniqueness and Amount), and the Mothers' Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control (Observation, Upbringing and Beliefs).

Variable	Younger Preschoolers			Older Preschoolers		
	Concurrent T-1	T-2	Long/l	Concurrent T-1	T-2	Long/l
BEHAVIOUR (positivity)	OBSERV Warmth positive		OBSERV Control positive	OBSERV Warmth)x2 positive	OBSERV Warmth)x2 positive	
			OBSERV Permiss positive			
		UPBRING Warmth positive			UPBRING Auth/ive)x2 negative	UPBRING Auth/ive negative
			BELIEFS Control positive			
LANGUAGE (positivity)					UPBRING Warmth positive	UPBRING Warmth positive
LANGUAGE (uniqueness)	OBSERV Auth/ian)x2 positive				OBSERV Uninvolv)x2 positive	OBSERV Uninvolv positive
					UPBRING Uninvolv)x2 positive	
LANGUAGE (amount)	OBSERV Auth/ian)x2 positive	OBSERV Permiss)x2 positive				
		BELIEFS Control positive				

Long/l = Longitudinal; T-1 = Time One; T-2 = Time Two; Observ = Observed; Upbring = Upbringing; Auth/ive = Authoritative; Auth/ian = Authoritarian; Permiss = Permissive; Uninvolv = Uninvolved.

Younger Preschoolers

Emotional Behaviour: Positivity

Positive effects on emotional behaviour positivity were found as in: (a) observation: from parental warmth/control (authoritative) at both time periods and earlier from authoritative parenting dimensions; (b) upbringing: earlier from parental warmth/control (authoritative); and (c) beliefs: later from authoritative parenting dimensions. Negative effects were found earlier from beliefs in parental warmth (non-authoritative); and there was a longitudinal decrease in positivity from beliefs in uninvolved parenting. All the above results supported the hypotheses.

Contrary to the hypotheses, positive effects on children's emotional behaviour positivity were found from non-authoritative parenting as in: (a) observation: earlier from parental warmth alone and longitudinal increases in positivity from parental control alone as well as from permissive parenting; (b) upbringing: later from parental warmth alone; and (c) beliefs: a longitudinal increase in positivity from parental control alone.

The hypothesised results need no explanation but one could speculate on reasons for the results that are contrary to the hypotheses. Observed warmth appears to be strong enough for emotional behaviour to be more positive when the children were younger as in parental warmth alone as well as the longitudinal influence of permissive (warmth alone) parenting from the earlier time on the children's later outcome. Again, the strength of remembered warmth alone may have made the children's emotional behaviour more positive. Alternatively, remembered warmth alone may be a part continuation of the earlier parental warmth and control together that had a positive outcome. In a similar way, the positive longitudinal outcomes from observed and beliefs in parental control alone may possibly be continuations of the preceding control in authoritative parenting of warmth and control.

Emotional Language: Positivity

There were no effects on emotional language positivity from the mothers' parenting.

Emotional Language: Uniqueness

As expected, negative effects on emotional language uniqueness were found as in: (a) observation: later from uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative) as well as a longitudinal decrease in uniqueness from uninvolved parenting; and (b) upbringing: later from parental warmth alone (non-authoritative) as well as a longitudinal decrease in uniqueness from parental control alone.

Against the hypotheses, positive effects on children's emotional language uniqueness were found from authoritarian (non-authoritative) parenting at the earlier date.

To have a positive outcome from authoritarian parenting was most unexpected as this non-authoritative parenting has control but no warmth. One possible reason is that the more authoritarian mothers may have been determined to teach their children more emotional words, i. e., to enlarge their two-and-a-half-year-olds' vocabulary of emotional language. This is feasible as the range of unique emotional words in the children's emotional language is not dependent on the 'positivity' of that language.

Emotional Language: Amount

Unexpectedly, positive effects on emotional language amount from non-authoritative parenting were found as in: (a) observation: from authoritarian parenting at Time One and permissive parenting at Time Two; and (b) beliefs: from parental control alone at Time Two.

These positive results from non-authoritative parenting were unexpected. The positive outcome at the later date from observed permissive (warmth no control) parenting may be explained by the strength of the mothers' warmth extending their children's talk about emotional experiences. The positive outcomes from the earlier observed authoritarian parenting (no warmth) and the later beliefs in parental control alone appear to have an underlying link of control. Again, it may be that control was used by authoritarian mothers who were determined to elicit extended accounts of emotional experiences from the children by asking more questions about emotions. This is possible, as the 'amount' of the children's emotional language is not dependent on the 'positivity' of that language. Also, the children could be so pleased that their mothers were spending time with them on a one-to-one basis that they obliged by talking more about emotions.

Older Preschoolers

Emotional Behaviour: Positivity

As hypothesised, effects on emotional behaviour positivity were found as in: (a) observation: positive from authoritative parenting and negative from authoritarian parenting, both at the earlier time; (b) upbringing: a longitudinal decrease in positivity from parental warmth alone (non-authoritative); and (c) beliefs: a longitudinal decrease in positivity from uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative).

Unexpectedly, effects on emotional behaviour positivity were found as in: (a) observation: positive from parental warmth alone (non-authoritative) at both time periods; and (b) upbringing: negative from authoritative parenting at Time Two and a longitudinal decrease in positivity from authoritative parenting.

Speculation on the unexpected results again focuses on observed warmth. Parental warmth alone may have been strong enough for the children's emotional behaviour to be more positive at both times. Another unexpected result was from remembered authoritative (warmth and control) upbringing. Even if both warmth and control were remembered, there was a negative outcome at the later date as well as a negative longitudinal outcome from the earlier to the later date. This may have been because the children were approaching schoolage and were perhaps more difficult to manage. An alternative speculation is that, although these mothers reported an authoritative upbringing of warmth and control, there may be underlying resentment of the amount of control remembered from childhood.

Emotional Language: Positivity

As hypothesised, there was a longitudinal decrease in positivity from parental control alone (non-authoritative).

Contrary to the hypotheses, effects on emotional language positivity were found from upbringing: positive from parental warmth alone (non-authoritative) later as well as a longitudinal increase in positivity from parental warmth alone.

Again, an unexpected result from parental warmth alone on the positivity of the children's emotional language. The strength of the memory of parental warmth alone has

elicited a positive outcome on the children's emotional language positivity at the later time as well as a positive longitudinal outcome from the earlier time to a year later.

Emotional Language: Uniqueness

As hypothesised, there were effects on emotional language uniqueness as in: (a) observation: a longitudinal decrease in uniqueness from parental control alone (non-authoritative); and (c) beliefs: a longitudinal increase in uniqueness from authoritative parenting.

Unexpectedly, positive effects on emotional language uniqueness were found as in: (a) observation: from uninvolved parenting (non-authoritative) later as well as a longitudinal increase from uninvolved parenting; and (b) upbringing: later from uninvolved parenting.

The positive outcomes from uninvolved parenting were surprising as this non-authoritative parenting has neither warmth nor control. Observed uninvolved parenting had an effect at the later date as well as a longitudinal effect from the earlier date on the children's later uniqueness of emotional language. These mothers were deemed uninvolved in observed parenting that would naturally have a negative affect on their children's emotional behaviour, but they may well have had an extensive vocabulary of emotional language which their children have absorbed in conversations. The children were nearing schoolage, so the mothers may possibly have allowed them more autonomy, but the lack of warmth remains a problem. This same speculation may apply to the earlier unexpected positive outcome from remembered uninvolved parental upbringing. Perhaps the remembered parenting from the earlier time may have had an underlying effect on the later observed uninvolved parenting that was not detected in correlations among the mothers' variables.

Emotional Language: Amount

There were no effects on emotional language positivity from the mothers' parenting.

Comparison of Younger and Older Preschoolers

The main pattern for the younger preschoolers was as hypothesised, with effects on the positivity of emotional behaviour being positive from authoritative parenting of warmth and control, and effects on the positivity of emotional behaviour and the uniqueness of emotional language being negative from non-authoritative parenting (no warmth and/or no control).

Contrary to the hypotheses, warmth alone and control alone had positive effects on the children's emotional behaviour positivity. There were unexpected results for the children's amount of emotional language from observed and beliefs in parenting. There were no significant effects on the younger children's positivity of emotional language from parenting.

Although some of the results were as hypothesised, the main pattern for the older preschoolers did not follow the expected parenting outcomes.

Contrary to the hypotheses, there were positive effects from non-authoritative parenting as on: the positivity of emotional behaviour from observed warmth alone; the positivity of emotional language from remembered warmth alone; and the uniqueness of emotional language from uninvolved parenting (both observed and upbringing). As well, there were negative effects on the children's emotional behaviour positivity from the remembered authoritative parenting of upbringing.

There were no significant effects on the older children's amount of emotional language from parenting.

It was hypothesised that the mothers' observed, upbringing and beliefs authoritative parenting styles of warmth and control would have a positive effect, and non-authoritative parenting would have a negative effect, on their preschoolers' emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount).

For the younger group, these hypotheses were upheld mainly for the positivity of behaviour and for the uniqueness of language, but were contrary for the amount of language.

There was no effect for the positivity of language. For the older group, some results were as hypothesised for the positivity of behaviour, but most of the results were contrary for the positivity of both behaviour and language as well as for the uniqueness of language. There was no effect for emotional language amount.

Contrary to the hypothesis, non-authoritative permissive parenting of warmth alone has had some positive effects on the positivity of both behaviour and language. For the younger group, observed and upbringing warmth alone had positive effects on behaviour while warmth alone from upbringing had positive effects on the older groups' language.

In other unexpected results, authoritative parenting had negative effects and non-authoritative parenting had positive results. For the younger group, observed and beliefs authoritarian parenting of control alone had positive effects on the amount of emotional language. For the older group, authoritative parenting from remembered upbringing had negative effects on the positivity of behaviour while upbringing and observed uninvolved parenting had positive effects on the uniqueness of language.

It is evident that the hypotheses for the parenting styles of warmth and control had more effect on the younger preschoolers than on the older preschoolers, both for emotional behaviour and for emotional language.

CHAPTER VII: GENERAL DISCUSSION

Influence of Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control

It is evident that the hypotheses for the parenting styles of warmth and control had more effect on the younger preschoolers than on the older preschoolers, both for emotional behaviour and for emotional language. Although most of the longitudinal changes were over small to moderate amounts of the total of the children's emotional behaviour or language, they were nevertheless changes over the year solely attributed to the mothers authoritative or non-authoritative parenting.

Preschoolers' Variables

Emotional behaviour: positivity. As hypothesised, the mothers' authoritative parenting had a positive concurrent influence, and their non-authoritative parenting had a negative longitudinal influence, on their younger children. The effect was less for the older group. Unexpectedly, non-authoritative parenting had a positive effect on both age groups while authoritative parenting had a negative effect on the older group.

Emotional language: positivity. The mothers' non-authoritative parenting had a negative concurrent effect on the older group, as expected. Surprisingly, non-authoritative parenting had positive concurrent and longitudinal effects on the older group. (No significant effects on the younger group).

Emotional language: uniqueness. In line with the hypotheses, the mothers' parenting styles strongly influenced their younger children but the effect was less for the older children. Unexpectedly, non-authoritative parenting had a negative concurrent effect on the younger group while non-authoritative parenting had positive concurrent and longitudinal effects on the older group.

Emotional language: amount. Surprisingly, the mothers' non-authoritative parenting had positive concurrent effects on their younger children's amount of language. (No significant effects on the older group).

For the Hypotheses

Younger. Behaviour positivity was strongly affected by observed, upbringing and beliefs in parenting, and language uniqueness by observed and upbringing parenting.

Older. Behaviour positivity was less affected by observed, upbringing and beliefs in parenting, language positivity by observed parenting, and language uniqueness by beliefs in parenting.

Contrary to the Hypotheses

Younger. Behaviour positivity was affected by observed, upbringing and beliefs in parenting, language uniqueness by observed parenting, and language amount by observed and beliefs in parenting.

Older. Behaviour positivity was affected by observed and upbringing parenting, language positivity by upbringing parenting, and language uniqueness by observed and upbringing parenting.

Mothers' Parenting Styles

Observed. The mothers' authoritative parenting had strong effects on the younger groups' behaviour positivity. For the older groups' positivity of behaviour, there were moderate positive effects from authoritative parenting and moderate negative effects from authoritarian parenting. All these effects were concurrent and replicated previous research on younger children. Unexpectedly for behaviour positivity, permissive parenting had positive concurrent and longitudinal effects on the younger group and positive concurrent effects on the older group.

The effects from the mothers' observed parenting on emotional language were again different for the younger and older children. For the older groups' language positivity, the mothers' permissive parenting had a negative concurrent effect, as hypothesised. For

language uniqueness, the mothers' uninvolved parenting had negative concurrent and longitudinal effects on the younger group, as hypothesised. Unexpectedly, authoritarian parenting had positive concurrent effects on the younger group and uninvolved parenting had positive concurrent and longitudinal effects on the older group. For the younger group's language amount, there were positive concurrent effects from permissive and authoritarian parenting, contrary to the hypotheses.

Upbringing. As hypothesised for behaviour positivity, the mothers' remembered authoritative parenting had a positive effects on the younger group and their permissive parenting had a negative effect on the older group. These effects were concurrent and followed previous research on adolescents and adults. Unexpectedly, permissive parenting had a positive concurrent effect on the younger group while authoritative parenting had a negative concurrent and longitudinal effect on the older children.

There were different effects from remembered parenting on the emotional language of both groups of children. For language positivity, permissive parenting had positive concurrent and longitudinal effects on the older group, contrary to the hypotheses. For language uniqueness, there were negative effects from permissive and authoritarian parenting, concurrent and longitudinal respectively on the younger group, as expected. Against the hypotheses, uninvolved parenting had a positive concurrent effect for the older group.

Beliefs. As hypothesised for the younger groups' behaviour positivity, the mothers' authoritative parenting had a positive concurrent effect while there were negative effects from permissive and uninvolved parenting that were concurrent and longitudinal respectively. Also, the mothers' uninvolved parenting had a negative concurrent effect on the behaviour positivity of the older group. Unexpectedly, the mothers' authoritarian parenting had a longitudinal effect on the younger group.

Again, the mothers' parenting beliefs had different effects on the emotional language of their children. For the older groups' language uniqueness, the mothers' authoritative parenting had a positive longitudinal effect, as hypothesised. For the younger groups'

language amount, the mothers' permissive parenting had a positive concurrent effect that was contrary to the hypotheses.

For the Hypotheses

Observed. The younger groups' behaviour positivity and language uniqueness was affected as well as the older groups' positivity of both behaviour and language.

Upbringing. Behaviour positivity was affected for both age groups as well as language uniqueness for the younger group.

Beliefs. Behaviour positivity was affected for both age groups as well as language uniqueness for the older group.

Contrary to the Hypotheses

Observed. Behaviour positivity was affected for both age groups as well as language amount for the younger group.

Upbringing. Behaviour positivity was affected for both age groups as well as language uniqueness for the older group.

Beliefs. Behaviour positivity and language amount were affected for the younger group.

Across Different Media

The hypotheses were that observed, upbringing and beliefs in authoritative parenting would have positive effects on, and non-authoritative parenting would have negative effects on, the younger and older preschoolers' emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount).

There were five sets of results that were contrary to the hypotheses. In the first two sets, observed parenting appeared to be influenced by remembered parental upbringing of non-authoritative parenting. For the second two set, observed parenting appeared to be influenced by beliefs in non-authoritative parenting. The last set involved the authoritative parenting from remembered upbringing.

(1) The mothers' remembered permissive upbringing appeared to have had an underlying impact on the positive effects of their observed permissive parenting. Observed permissive parenting had positive concurrent and longitudinal effects on the behaviour of the younger group as well as positive concurrent effects on the behaviour of the older group. Non-authoritative permissive parenting of warmth alone was hypothesised to have a negative effect on behaviour positivity, as in previous research showed that non-authoritative parenting had negative effects on children's behaviour.

The power of warmth alone in remembered permissive parenting appeared to be strong enough to impact on the observed permissive parenting thereby influencing a positive effect on the emotional behaviour positivity of both the younger and the older children. Warmth alone in permissive parenting has also been shown in this research to have negative effects as hypothesised. These conflicting results may call to question whether the essence of warmth in parenting styles has been captured. There appear to be two things that have been underestimated in the present hypotheses for behaviour positivity: one is the power of remembered parenting over observed parenting and the other is the power of warmth alone and whether the present measurement criteria for parenting styles has enough depth.

(2) The mothers' remembered uninvolved parenting appeared to have an impact on the positive effects of their observed uninvolved parenting. Observed uninvolved parenting had a positive longitudinal effect on the language uniqueness of the older group. Non-authoritative uninvolved parenting of no warmth or control was hypothesised to have a negative effect on language, as previous research has shown that non-authoritative parenting had negative effects on children's behaviour.

The power of remembered uninvolved parenting appeared to be strong enough to impact on the observed uninvolved parenting thereby influencing a positive effect on the older children's emotional language uniqueness. Uninvolved parenting of no warmth or control has also been shown in this research to have negative effects as hypothesised. No warmth is necessary for language uniqueness which is a total of positive and negative unique emotional words. These uninvolved mothers may possibly have remained passive throughout the observation sessions to allow their older children more autonomy. In

Baumrind's (1978) typology of parenting styles of warmth and control there is no allowance for the continuum of psychological autonomy versus psychological control, as used by Crook et al. (1981; see Chapter One). Alternatively, these uninvolved mothers may well have had an extensive vocabulary of emotional language that their children have absorbed in talk in everyday life. There appear to be three things that have been underestimated in the present hypotheses for emotional language uniqueness: the first is the power of remembered parenting over observed parenting, the second is the advisability of including psychological autonomy versus psychological control in the typology for parenting styles, and the last is the impact of the mothers' emotional vocabulary used in everyday life.

(3) The mothers' beliefs in authoritarian parenting appeared to have an impact on the positive effects of their observed authoritarian parenting. Observed authoritarian parenting had a positive longitudinal effect on the behaviour positivity of the younger group. Non-authoritative authoritarian parenting of no warmth was hypothesised to have a negative effect on behaviour, as previous research has shown that non-authoritative parenting had negative effects on children's behaviour.

The power of control alone in beliefs in authoritarian parenting appeared to be strong enough to impact on the observed authoritarian parenting, thereby influencing a positive effect on the behaviour positivity of the younger children. Control alone in authoritarian parenting has also been shown in this research to have negative effects as hypothesised. Despite the lack of warmth of the authoritarian mothers, their children may have been pleased to be the focus of their mothers' sole attention in the displayed control. The temperament of these younger children may have needed more control to keep them working on the tasks in the alien atmosphere of the laboratory. The younger children's temperaments may have volatile, as in needing control at one minute and bouncing back to positive behaviour within minutes. Nevertheless, there is a difference between the structural control of parenting styles and psychological control. Perhaps the addition of the continuum of psychological autonomy versus psychological control to the typology for parenting styles would have explained the surprising positive effect of authoritarian parenting. There appear to be three things that have been underestimated in the present hypotheses for behaviour

positivity in younger children: the first is the power of beliefs in parenting over observed parenting, the second is the advisability of including psychological autonomy versus psychological control in the typology for parenting styles, and the last is the necessity to allow for the effects of the temperament of some of the younger children during the observation sessions.

(4) The mothers' beliefs in authoritarian parenting appeared to have an impact on the positive effects of their observed authoritarian parenting. Observed authoritarian parenting had positive concurrent effects on the language uniqueness and amount of the younger group. Non-authoritative authoritarian parenting of no warmth was hypothesised to have a negative effect on language, as previous research has shown that non-authoritative parenting had negative effects on children's behaviour.

The power of control alone in beliefs in authoritarian parenting appeared to be strong enough to impact on the observed authoritarian parenting thereby influencing a positive effect on the emotional language uniqueness and amount of the younger children. As already stated, control alone in authoritarian parenting has also been shown in this research to have negative effects as hypothesised. Positivity or warmth is not an issue for language uniqueness or amount: just the number of unique emotional words (positive and negative together) and the amount of emotional language (positive and negative together). There is a resemblance between the positive effect of these authoritarian mothers on their younger children's language uniqueness and amount, and the 'confrontational topic-extender' mother (McCabe & Peterson, 1991; see Chapter 1) who persisted in a confrontational way until her child was an above-average narrator. Again, there is a difference between the structural control of parenting styles and psychological control. Perhaps the addition of the continuum of psychological autonomy versus psychological control to the typology for parenting styles would have explained the surprising positive effect of authoritarian parenting. There appear to be three things that have been underestimated in the present hypotheses: the first is the power of beliefs in parenting over observed parenting, the second is the advisability of including psychological autonomy versus psychological control in the typology for parenting

styles, and the last is the determination of some authoritarian mothers to extend their young children's emotional language vocabulary and amount in narratives.

(5) Once more, another result that was contrary to the hypotheses involved remembered parental upbringing. The mothers' remembered authoritative parenting had negative concurrent and longitudinal effects on the language positivity of the older group. Authoritative parenting of warmth and control was hypothesised to have a positive effect on language, as previous research has showed that remembered non-authoritative parenting upbringing on had negative effects on children's behaviour as well as adults' behaviour and mental health.

The power of the remembered authoritative upbringing appeared to be strong enough to have negative effects on the older children's language positivity. Authoritative parenting of warmth and control has also been shown in this research to have positive effects as hypothesised. It is feasible that mothers who recalled an upbringing that was authoritative with both warmth and control may have had an underlying resentment of the amount of control. This may have had an unconscious effect on their children's behaviour positivity as children are sensitive to a mother's attitude. Alternatively, it could be that their older children may just have wanted more autonomy and have shown negativity in their own behaviour. Perhaps the addition of the continuum of psychological autonomy versus psychological control to the typology for parenting styles would have explained the surprising negative effect of authoritative parenting. There appear to be two things that have been underestimated in the present hypotheses for emotional behaviour positivity: one is the possibility of underlying resentment the control in remembered authoritative parenting, and the other is the advisability of including psychological autonomy versus psychological control in the typology for parenting styles.

In the foregoing sets of results that were contrary to the hypotheses, there were six variables that need further discussion. The first four will be discussed under 'Reappraisal of parenting of styles' and the last two under 'Directions for future research'.

Upbringing. The power of remembered upbringing was strong enough to impact on observed non-authoritative parenting to elicit positive effects on emotional behaviour positivity and on language uniqueness, against the hypotheses. The power of remembered upbringing over observed parenting has been underestimated.

Also, the power of remembered authoritative upbringing was strong enough to elicit negative effects on emotional language positivity, contrary to the hypotheses. The power of possible underlying resentments from remembered upbringing have been underestimated.

Beliefs. The power of parenting beliefs was strong enough to impact on observed non-authoritative parenting to elicit positive effects on emotional behaviour positivity, on language uniqueness and on language amount, against the hypotheses. The power of parenting beliefs over observed parenting has been underestimated.

Warmth. The power of remembered warmth alone was strong enough to impact upon observed non-authoritative parenting to elicit positive effects on emotional behaviour positivity, against the hypotheses. The power of warmth alone questions whether the measurement criteria for warmth in parenting styles has captured the essence and depth of warmth.

Autonomy. The conflicting results from authoritarian parenting question whether autonomy should be added to the typology of warmth and control of parenting styles. The continuum of psychological autonomy versus psychological control would specify the difference between structural control and psychological control.

Temperament. Younger children may have volatile temperaments that need structural control, especially during the observation sessions. The power of a three-year-old child's temperament has been underestimated and could possibly have been measured.

Vocabulary. The uninvolved mothers' own emotional vocabularies may have been extensive for everyday life but not used in the narratives. Their children may have absorbed their mothers' range of language uniqueness during everyday life.

Re-appraisal of Parenting Styles of Warmth and Control

For Baumrind (1978), the optimum parenting style was authoritative with both warmth and control. In the present study, authoritative parenting of warmth and control had positive outcomes, as hypothesised, but also had some negative results. Authoritarian parenting of control alone, permissive parenting of warmth alone and uninvolved parenting of no warmth or control had negative results, as hypothesised, but had some positive results as well.

The power of remembered warmth alone was strong enough to impact upon observed non-authoritative parenting to elicit positive effects on emotional behaviour positivity, against the hypotheses. This power of warmth alone casts doubt upon whether the measurement criteria for warmth in parenting styles has captured the essence and depth of warmth or whether is something more profound. The research and theories of Gottman and colleagues (Gottman, Katz & Hooven, 1996) on mega-emotion may have an answer for the mixed results of warmth and control. They posit that, although meta-emotion philosophy has warmth and structuring, it is quite different from authoritative parenting. Within the warmth of parenting styles, a parent may be "very concerned and generally positive but oblivious to the world of emotions" (Gottman et al., 1996, p.245).

It is also possible that, within the warmth of parenting styles, a parent may become involved in 'emotion-coaching' or 'emotion-dismissing' (Gottman et al., 1996). Emotion-coaching parents teach their children to deal with negative and aversive emotions while emotion-dismissing parents 'ride over' negative emotions and change to positive emotions as quickly as possible. Emotion-dismissing parents typically ignore sadness in their children. Emotion-coaching parents have been shown to have children who three years later were emotionally competent in an entirely different manner from the way they were previously

coached by their parents (see Hooven et al., 1995, Chapter I: Introduction). This would equate with Saarni's (1993, p.443) emotional competence component of the:

‘.... capacity for coping adaptively with aversive and distressing emotions’.

Gottman et al. (1996) demonstrated that the children were not just modelling what they were previously taught but had developed strategies to deal with aversive emotions in themselves and in others. One could speculate that the mixed positive and negative results concerning warmth obtained from the emotional behaviour and emotional language of the preschoolers in the present research may be a reaction to their mothers' emotion-coaching or emotion-dismissing rather than to their mothers' authoritative parenting

The conflicting results from authoritarian parenting challenge whether autonomy should be added to the warmth and control of parenting styles. The continuum of psychological autonomy versus psychological control would distinguish between the necessary structural control and the more pervasive psychological control. An optimal model of parenting styles would have warmth (amended as per Gottman et al., 1996), structural control (as per Baumrind, 1978), and the continuum of psychological autonomy versus psychological control (as in Crook et al., 1981).

The power of remembered upbringing was strong enough to impact on observed non-authoritative parenting to elicit positive effects on emotional behaviour positivity and on language uniqueness, against the hypotheses. The power of remembered upbringing over observed parenting has been underestimated. Also, the power of remembered authoritative upbringing was strong enough to elicit negative effects on emotional language positivity, contrary to the hypotheses. The power of possible underlying resentments from remembered upbringing have been underestimated. Perhaps mothers do not realise the significance of their childhood memories that have inherent consequences on their preschoolers. It behoves all parents to confront and deal with memories of their childhood upbringing and, if necessary, to seek counselling if these are likely to impact negatively on their parenting styles. It would be helpful if parenting courses included some seminars on parental upbringing and their possible outcomes.

The power of parenting beliefs was strong enough to impact on observed non-authoritative parenting to elicit positive effects on emotional behaviour positivity, on

language uniqueness and on language amount, against the hypotheses. The power of parenting beliefs over observed parenting has been underestimated. Also, there were some results in which the effect of the mothers' observed parental behaviour and their parental beliefs differed. Any parent knows to their cost the difference between parental beliefs and parental behaviour. Nevertheless, both parental beliefs and parenting behaviour may benefit from parenting courses that encourage parents to interact more positively with their preschoolers.

Implications of the Results

Most of the previous research on parenting styles of warmth and control has been based on Northern American culture. No data has been found giving percentages for the parenting style dimensions within samples. It is possible that there is a difference in the parenting styles in the New Zealand culture. In the present research sample of 59 mothers of 30-month-olds: half were authoritative, under one-quarter were authoritarian, one-fifth were permissive and under one-tenth were uninvolved. In the research sample of 60 mothers of 48-month-olds: over half were authoritative, over one-quarter were authoritarian, one-tenth were permissive and one-eighth were uninvolved.

It is also possible that New Zealand preschoolers and mothers differ from North American dyads in the following respects (although accurate data is not available): not as many mothers of preschoolers are in full-time employment, not as many mothers of preschoolers are solo parents, and not as many preschoolers are full-time in day-care centres and creches.

This research has strongly supported the hypotheses that the warmth and control of the mothers' parenting styles would influence their preschoolers' emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount) via the three media of observed interaction, remembered parental styles from upbringing and parental beliefs of warmth and control. However, this research has yielded mixed results regarding the positivity or negativity of influence. Nevertheless, all the results in emotional language were consistent with Harré's (1986, 1989, 1993; Harré & Gillett, 1994) theory of the social

construction of emotions, in that the child learns about emotions from the mother who is part of a culture. Also, the longitudinal results in emotional language were consistent with Vygotsky's (1978, 1986, 1987, 1994) social interaction theory of emotions, in that interpersonal speech is internalised over time to become intrapersonal within the child.

Given that the present research was adequately carried out with a representative sample, the four parenting styles of warmth and control (Maccoby & Martin, 1984) do not fully account for (a) the mothers' interaction with their preschoolers, or (b) the preschoolers' reaction to their mothers in the positivity or negativity of their emotional behaviour and emotional language. An optimal model of parenting styles would have warmth (amended as per Gottman et al., 1996), structural control (as per Baumrind, 1978), and the continuum of psychological autonomy versus psychological control (as in Crook et al., 1981).

The present research has shown that the mothers' remembered parental upbringing, authoritative and non-authoritative, have influenced their preschoolers' emotional behaviour and emotional language, as hypothesised. Moreover, when remembered non-authoritative parenting had positive effects (against the hypotheses), it impacted on observed non-authoritative parenting to have positive effects. This influence of the mothers' remembered parental upbringing over their observed parenting has profound implications for future research.

This research has shown that the mothers' beliefs in parenting, authoritative and non-authoritative, have influenced their preschoolers' emotional behaviour and emotional language, as hypothesised. Furthermore, when beliefs in non-authoritative parenting had positive effects (against the hypotheses), it impacted on observed non-authoritative parenting to have positive effects. This influence of the mothers' beliefs in parenting over their observed parenting has significant implications for future research.

Directions for Future Research

In any replication of the present study, it would be useful to improve the criteria of warmth in parenting styles by investigating the mothers' 'emotion-coaching' and 'emotion-dismissing' tendencies. It would also be useful to add psychological autonomy versus

psychological control to the typology of parenting styles of warmth and control. As well, some measurement of the temperament of the younger children may clarify the structural control used on them by authoritarian mothers. In research on emotional language uniqueness, it may be advantageous to ascertain the extend of the mothers' emotional language as this may not be apparent from the dyads' narratives, especially for uninvolved mothers.

In spite of the important significant results that emerged, it would be desirable to incorporate some improvements in the methodology. For example, the observed parenting styles of warmth and control were obtained from two ten-minute videotapes of mother-child interactions in the laboratory. A longer observation period might yield more information that may clarify some of the inconsistent findings. Interviews could also be combined with questionnaires to obtain more information about parental upbringing and parental beliefs.

Conclusion

Parenting is one of the most important tasks in a lifetime and one that has the most far-reaching consequences. It is perhaps onerous at times but is a joy and a privilege for which there is no formal training and it requires no licence. The closest role models one has for beliefs in parenting are one's own parenting: be they good, bad or indifferent. For parenting beliefs, guidelines could be sought from Parenting Centres and suchlike institutions, remembering always to temper structural control with large measures of warmth and appropriate measures of autonomy. Also, one must come to terms with one's own parental upbringing as this research has shown some pervasive consequences of remembered parenting.

The present research has mainly replicated previous concurrent and longitudinal research that established a strong association between the mothers' observed parenting styles of warmth and control and their preschoolers' emotional behaviour positivity.

This research has also shown that the mothers' observed parenting styles of warmth and control had a strong influence over their preschoolers' emotional language (positivity,

uniqueness and amount). Moreover, these observed parenting styles influenced preschoolers' emotional language by increasing or decreasing the same over twelve months. The influence of the mothers' observed parenting styles over their preschoolers' emotional language (positivity, uniqueness and amount) has not been found in previous research and has not been acknowledged in parenting styles literature.

The mothers' remembered parenting styles from upbringing had a strong influence on their preschoolers' emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity and uniqueness), as hypothesised. When contrary to the hypotheses on behaviour positivity and language uniqueness, upbringing parenting impacted on observed non-authoritative parenting to have positive effects. The influence of the mothers' remembered parenting on their preschoolers' emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (positivity and uniqueness) has not been found in previous research and has not been acknowledged in parenting style literature.

The mothers' beliefs in parenting had a moderate influence on their preschoolers' emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (uniqueness and amount), as hypothesised. When contrary to the hypotheses on behaviour positivity and language amount, beliefs in parenting impacted on observed non-authoritative parenting to have positive effects. The influence of the mothers' beliefs in parenting on their preschoolers' emotional behaviour (positivity) and emotional language (uniqueness and amount) has not been found in previous research and has not been acknowledged in parenting style literature.

Parenting can be a weighty responsibility at times but it can also be one of the most fulfilling experiences in one's life. It is a privilege that, by thought, word and deed, one can positively or negatively influence one's preschoolers' emotional behaviour and emotional language. To influence positively will result in well-rounded personalities that enable them to control emotions, express feelings verbally and maintain personal relationships: all important adjuncts of mental health and adjustment. To influence negatively will result in the opposite and may impair their future mental health and wellbeing.

To those who have the privilege of parenting: endeavour to remain positive: AND ENJOY YOUR PARENTING!

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire:

Mothers' Own Upbringing of Warmth and Control

(two pages)

This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents.

As you remember your MOTHER/FATHER/CAREGIVER in your first 16-18 years, would you put a circle around the number or statement that best describes your opinion in each scale.

1. What do you think is usually true (1) or usually false (2) about your father/stepfather/male caregiver?

- | | | |
|--|-----|-----|
| a. I could count on him to help me out, if I had some kind of problem. | (1) | (2) |
| b. He kept pushing me to do my best in whatever I did. | (1) | (2) |
| c. He kept pushing me to think independently. | (1) | (2) |
| d. He helped me with my school work if there was something I didn't understand | (1) | (2) |
| e. When he wanted me to do something, he explained why. | (1) | (2) |

2. What do you think is usually true (1) or usually false (2) about your mother/stepmother/female caregiver?

- | | | |
|---|-----|-----|
| a. I could count on her to help me out, if I had some kind of problem. | (1) | (2) |
| b. She kept pushing me to do my best in whatever I did. | (1) | (2) |
| c. She kept pushing me to think independently. | (1) | (2) |
| d. She helped me with my school work if there was something I didn't understand | (1) | (2) |
| d. When she wanted me to do something, she explained why. | (1) | (2) |

3. When you got a poor grade in school, how often did your parents/caregivers encourage you to try harder?

Never	Sometimes	Usually
-------	-----------	---------

4. When you got a good grade in school, how often did your parents/caregivers praise you?

Never	Sometimes	Usually
-------	-----------	---------

5. How much did your parents really know who your friends were?

Didn't know	Knew a little	Knew a lot
-------------	---------------	------------

6. How often did these things happen in your family?

a. My parents spent time just talking with me.

Almost every day A few times a week A few times a month Almost never

b. My family did something fun together.

Almost every day A few times a week A few times a month Almost never

7. In a typical week, what was the latest you could stay out on SCHOOL NIGHTS (Mon-Thurs)?

Not allowed Bef 8.00pm 8-8.59pm 9-9.59pm 10-10.59pm 11.00+ Later

8. In a typical week, what was the latest you could stay out on FRIDAY OR SATURDAY NIGHT?

Not allowed Bef 9.00pm 9-9.59pm 10-10.59pm 11-11.59pm 12-12.59pm

1-1.59am 2.00am+ As late as I wanted

9. My parents knew exactly where I was most afternoons after school. Yes No

10. How much did your parents TRY to know:

[1. didn't try; 2. tried a little; 3. tried a lot]

a. Where you went at night? (1) (2) (3)

b. What you did with your free time? (1) (2) (3)

c. Where you were most afternoons after school? (1) (2) (3)

11. How much did your parents REALLY KNOW:

[1. didn't know; 2. knew a little; 3. knew a lot]

a. Where you went at night? (1) (2) (3)

b. What you did with your free time? (1) (2) (3)

c. Where you were most afternoons after school? (1) (2) (3)

APPENDIX B**Questionnaire:****Mothers' Beliefs of Warmth and Control****(two pages)**

Listed below are five situations that you may experience as parents/caregivers.

We would like to know how you **believe** you would deal with each of these situations. Please circle the behaviour you consider appropriate for each situation.

1. When your child has to carry out a task, do you think that a parent should:
 - (a) first map out all the steps necessary for the child to complete the task, then give practical help at each stage of the task
 - (b) first give the main steps necessary for the child to complete the task, then continue to give clear information and suggestions while child completes the task
 - (c) first give general directions before the child begins the task, followed by some more information, then gradually allow child to complete the task alone
 - (d) first give some information about the task, then not interfere with the child's completion of the task
 - (e) first give no information but allow the child to complete the task alone, and not interfere by providing information or a plan

2. When there is a task to do, do you think that a parent should set limits for what their child can or cannot do by:
 - (a) requiring obedience at all times, and in all circumstances
 - (b) remaining consistent when child tests the limits already set
 - (c) setting and maintaining some of the limits
 - (d) setting some limits, but allowing the child a lot of free movement
 - (e) allowing the child the freedom to set their own limits

3. How you think that a parent should respond to their child's behaviour when working on a task:
 - (a) immediately at the first sign of need, and help the child over all the difficult parts
 - (b) early on with (usually) a small amount of help that allows the child to resume with the task
 - (c) meeting some of the child's more obvious needs
 - (d) mostly allow the child to solve their own problems, and work at their own pace
 - (e) allow the child to work at their own pace, and solve their own problems

4. When the child is working on a task, how much warmth do you think a parent should show her child:
 - (a) should show by speaking lovingly at all times, and touching many times
 - (b) should be open with affection, so that child knows you are there for her/him
 - (c) should show a reasonable amount of affection
 - (d) should show a small amount of affection, so that you do not distract the child from task
 - (e) should stand back, and not crowd her child in any way by speaking or touching

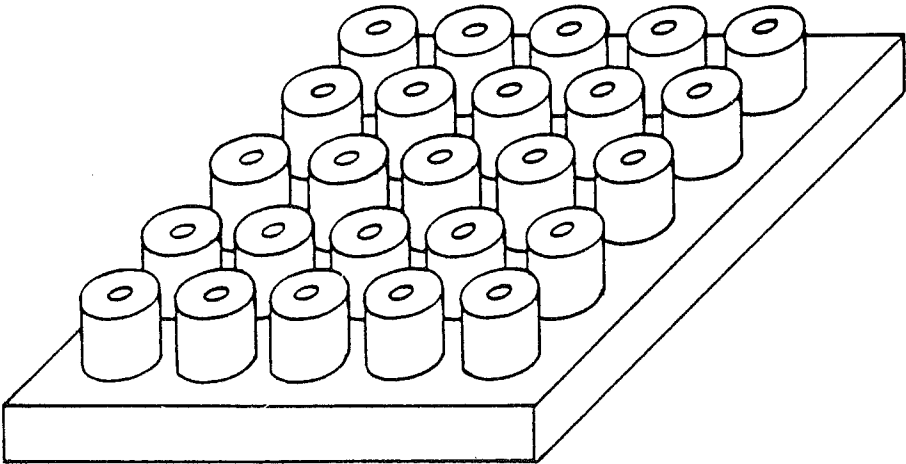
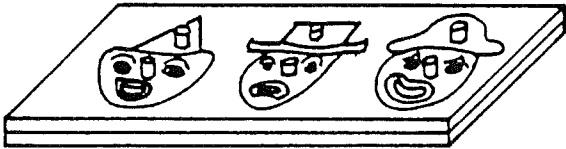
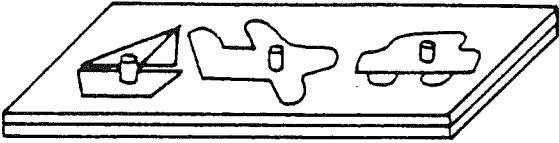
5. Our children can, and do, make us angry! How much anger do you think a parent should show when their child is working on a task:
 - (a) show your child how angry you are
 - (b) show some of your anger at some understandable cause
 - (c) show irritation at times throughout the task
 - (d) just scold at a particular behaviour
 - (e) show no anger at all

APPENDIX C

Diagram:

Videotape Matrix Classification Tasks (3)

Time One: Younger Preschoolers



APPENDIX D

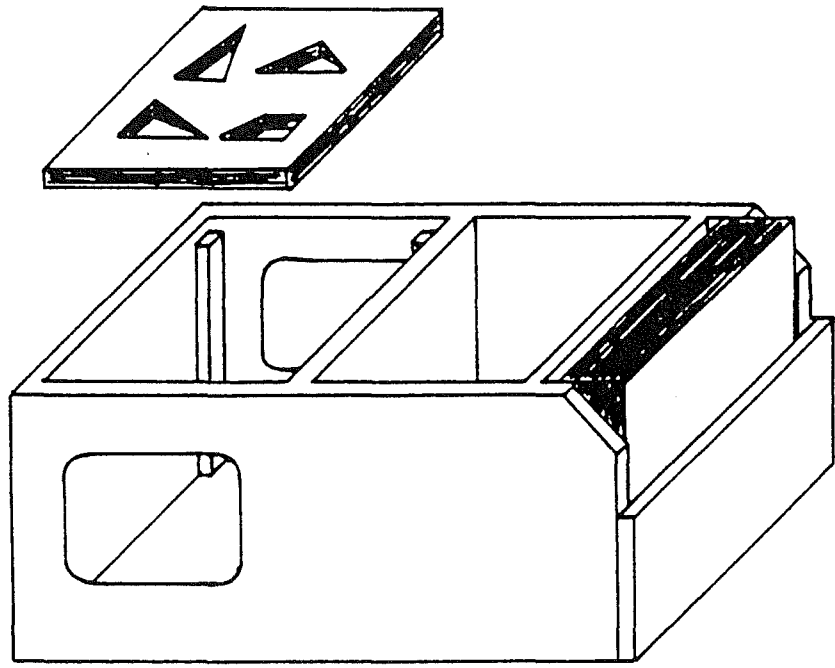
Diagram:

Videotape Matrix Classification Task

Time One: Older Preschoolers

Time Two: Younger Preschoolers

Time Two: Older Preschoolers

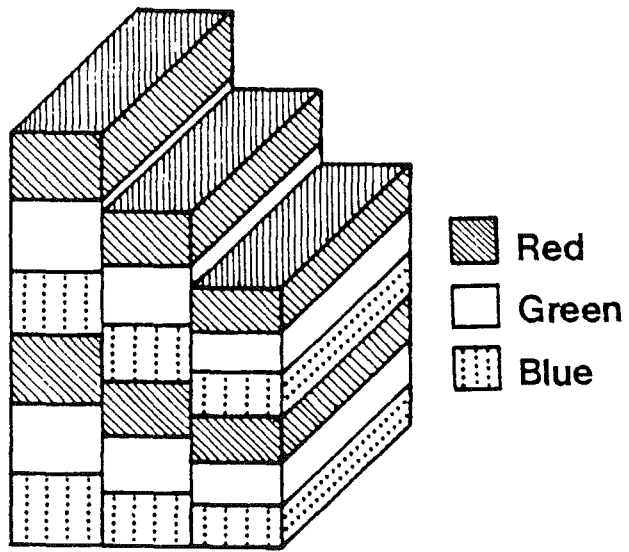


APPENDIX E

Diagram:

Videotape Block-building Task

Time One: Younger Preschoolers

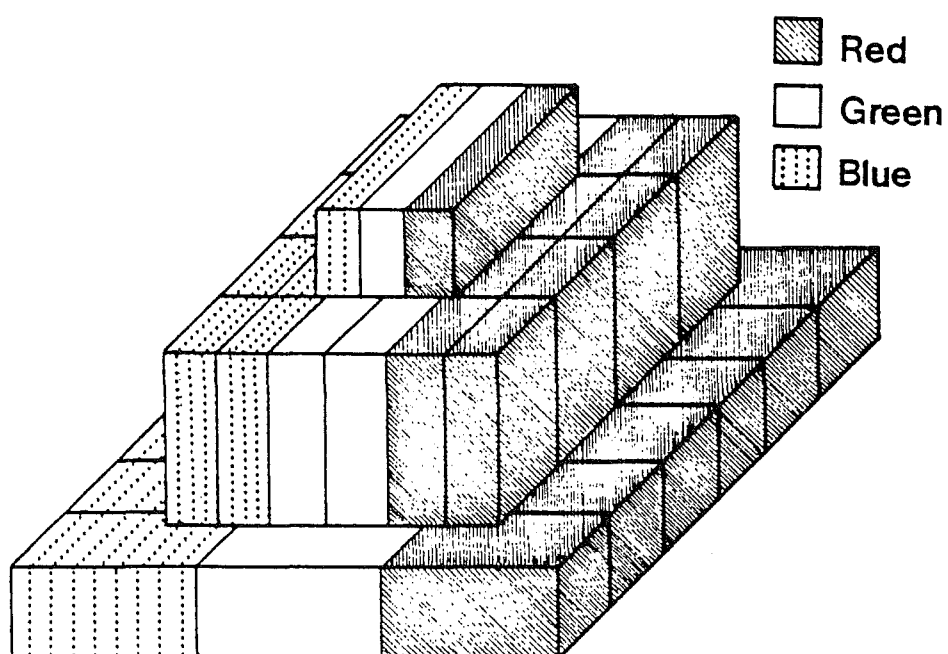


APPENDIX F

Diagram:

Videotape Block-building Task

Time One: Older Preschoolers

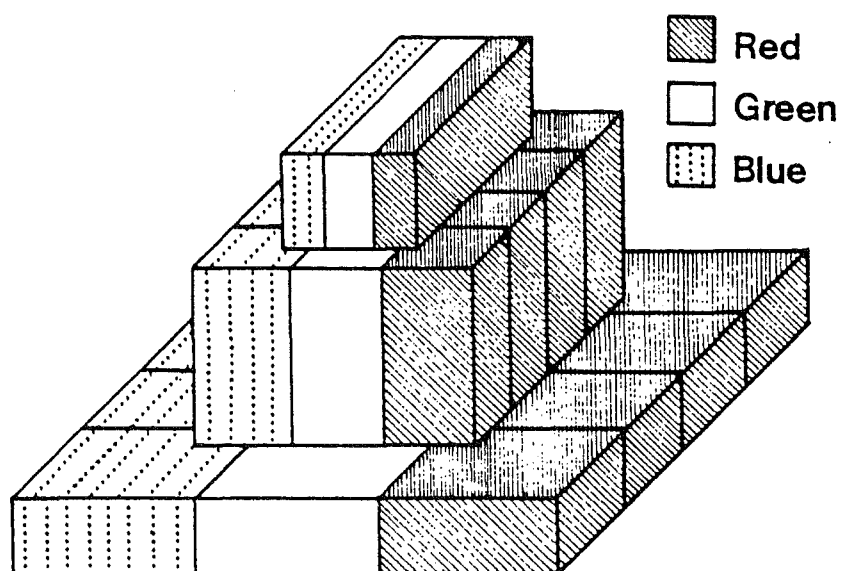


APPENDIX G

Diagram:

Videotape Block-building Task

Time Two: Younger Preschoolers

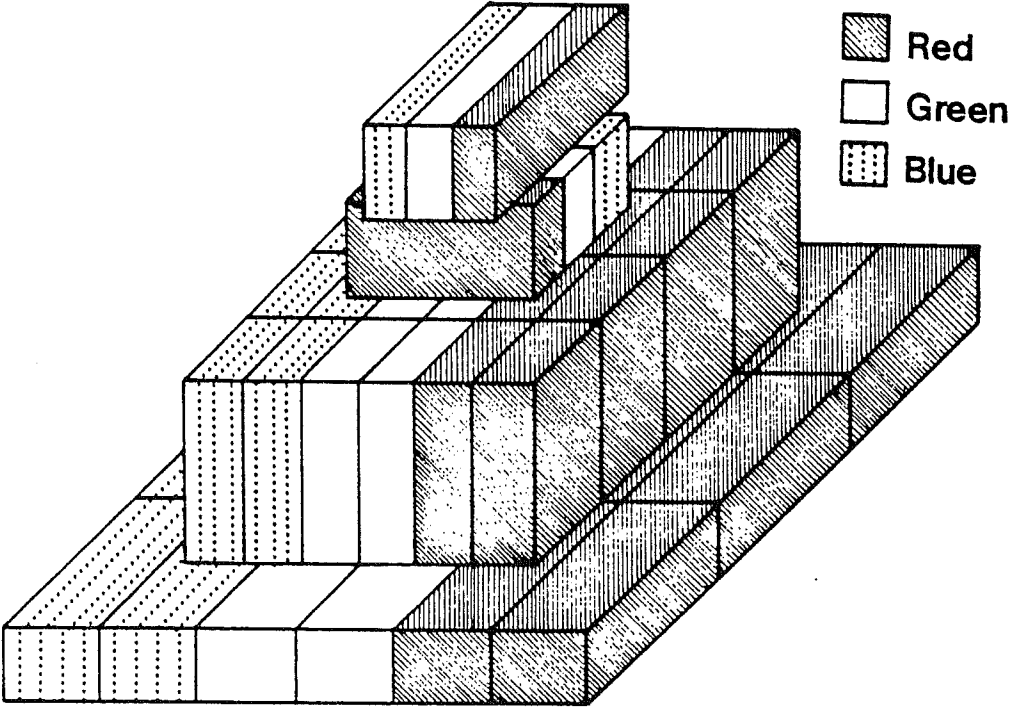


APPENDIX H

Diagram:

Videotape Block-building Task

Time Two: Older Preschoolers



APPENDIX I

Instructions:

Audiotape Instructions

AUDIOTAPING FOR CHILDREN'S EMOTION STUDY

Could you please do THREE separate tapings of PAST events
(at least 2 to 3 months ago)
in your child's life where emotion has been involved,
for instance:

- Incident at kindergarten, playcentre, creche,
or friends, such as party, accident, quarrel.
- Holiday, visit to grandparents, friends.
- Birthday party, playing at a friend's place or a park.

Please begin each separate taping with the words:

"Tell me what happened when"

If your child responds to this, and talks about the subject,
ask how she/he FELT at that time, such as happy, sad, etc.,
and how she/he feels about it now.

If she/he nods or shakes their head,
it would be helpful if you stated that on the tape,
as we could then follow the conversation.

It would be most helpful if you could do these audiotapings when you were alone
with your child, as other children or adults speaking (or babies crying!)
make it difficult to hear the voices.

Your child may like to draw pictures while doing the taping,
but we would prefer that she/he does not play with blocks
as these noises make the transcribing of the audiotapes more difficult.

You may find it helpful to browse through your photograph album
with your child to remind her/him of past emotional events
BUT this is not a memory test!

Please CHECK that BOTH voices are clearly heard on the tape.

APPENDIX J
Videotape Coding Sheet:
Preschoolers' Emotional Behaviour

DYAD: _____ CODER: _____ DATE: _____

	1				2				3				4				5				6				7				8				9				10			
	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60
COMPLY																																								
DEFY																																								
DEPEND																																								
AUTONOMY																																								
WARMTH																																								
COLDness																																								
ANGER																																								
1 DIRECT																																								
3 =																																								
2 INDIR																																								
ANXIETY																																								
HAPPY																																								
SAD																																								
ENTHUS																																								
FRUST																																								
EXPRESS																																								
1/ACTN																																								
1 VERBAL																																								
3 =																																								
2 NON V																																								

APPENDIX K

Videotape Coding Sheet:

Mothers' Parenting Style Behaviour

DYAD: _____ CODER: _____ DATE: _____

	1				2				3				4				5				6				7				8				9				10			
	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60	15	30	45	60				
LIM/SET																																								
STRUCT																																								
APPRO																																								
RESPON																																								
WARMTH																																								
COLDness																																								
ANGER																																								
1 DIRECT																																								
3 =																																								
2 INDIR																																								
ANXIETY																																								
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DISPLEAS																																								
EXPRESS																																								
1/ACTN																																								
1 VERBAL																																								
3 =																																								
2 NON V																																								

APPENDIX L

List:

Emotion Names

(Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson & O'Connor, 1987)

EMOTION NAMES

adoration
affection,
aggravation
agitation
agony
alarm
alienation
amazement
amusement
anger
anguish
annoyance
anxiety
apprehension
arousal
astonishment
attraction
bitterness
bliss
caring
cheerfulness
compassion
contempt
contentment
defeat
dejection
delight
depression
desire
despair
disappointment
disgust
dislike
dismay
displeasure
distress
dread
eagerness
ecstasy
elation
embarrassment
enjoyment
enthralment
enthusiasm
envy

euphoria
exasperation
excitement
exhilaration
fear
ferocity
fondness
fright
frustration
fury
gaiety
gladness
glee
gloom
glumness
grief
grouchiness
grumpiness
guilt
happiness
hate
homesickness
hope
hopelessness
horror
hostility
humiliation
hurt
hysteria
infatuation
insecurity
insult
irritation
isolation
jealousy
jolliness
joviality
joy
jubilation
liking
loathing
loneliness
longing
love
lust

melancholy
misery
mortification
neglect
nervousness
optimism
outrage
panic
passion
pity
pleasure
pride
rage
rapture
regret
rejection
relief
remorse
resentment
revulsion
sadness
satisfaction
scorn
sentimentality
shame
shock
sorrow
spite
suffering
surprise
sympathy
tenderness
tenseness
terror
thrill
torment
triumph
uneasiness
unhappiness
vengefulness
woe
worry
wrath
zeal
zest

APPENDIX M

List:

Emotion Words per se

abandoned
 abhorrence
 acceptance
 admired
 afraid
 alertness
 alright, okay
 apologetic
 approval
 aversion
 awe
 awful
 bad
 belligerence
 best
 better
 boredom
 bossy
 calmness
 carefreeness
 carefulness
 close
 cold
 comfort
 complacency
 concerned
 confident
 confused
 coolness
 craving
 cross
 cry
 deliberateness
 demoralisation
 deprived
 despondency
 determination
 discomfort
 disconsolateness
 discontentment
 discouragement
 disgruntlement
 distraction
 dolefulness
 don't mind
 doubt
 edginess
 effervescence
 empathetic
 empty
 enchantment
 encouragement
 exaltation

exaltation
 exuberance
 favourite
 feel awful
 feel bad
 feel fine
 feel good
 fervour
 fierceness
 fine
 forgiveness
 forlornness
 freedom
 frenzy
 fun
 grood
 grateful
 gratitude
 great
 growl
 harassed
 hard
 horrible
 hot
 hug
 impatience
 inclination
 inconsiderate
 inconsolableness
 indecision
 indifferent
 indignation
 intelligence
 interest
 ire
 jitteriness
 kill you
 kind
 kiss
 laugh
 lividness
 mad
 malevolence
 mean
 mellowness
 mirth
 mind
 missed
 modesty
 moroseness
 moved
 nasty
 naughty

needed
 negative
 nice
 nostalgia
 not good
 not much fun
 obsession
 okay, alright
 pain
 peaceful
 persecution
 power
 practicality
 protected
 respect
 safe
 scared
 secure
 self-control
 sheepishness
 shy
 sick
 smile
 sombreness
 sore
 startle
 stupid
 success
 sulkiness
 sullenness
 super
 superiority
 tears
 terrible
 thankful
 titillation
 trust
 uncomfortable
 unmoved
 upset
 vanity
 vehemence
 vexation
 vibrance
 viciousness
 vindictiveness
 virtue
 want
 warmth
 wonderment
 worse
 yucky

APPENDIX N
Audiotape Coding Sheet:
Emotional Language and Consequences

Dyad: Narr: #..... Coder: Date:

EMOTIONAL LANGUAGE & CONSEQUENCES

MOTHER	A. abandon	B. repeat	C. extend/self	D. extend/child
1. +ve E/word				
2. -ve E/word				
3. +ve E/word per/se				
4. -ve E/word per/se				

CHILD	A. pt/ignore	B. pt/repeat	C. pt/elaborate	D. add/content
1. +ve E/word				
2. -ve E/word				
3. +ve E/word per/se				
4. -ve E/word per/se				

APPENDIX O
Audiotape Coding Sheet:
Units of Information

Dyad: Narr: # Coder: Date:

UNITS OF INFORMATION

<u>MOTHER:</u>	Total
a. PERSON	
b. PLACE	
c. OBJECT	
d. ACTIVITY	
e. QUALITY	
f. FEELINGS	

<u>CHILD:</u>	Total
a. PERSON	
b. PLACE	
c. OBJECT	
d. ACTIVITY	
e. QUALITY	
f. FEELINGS	

APPENDIX P

Letter:

Canvass for Participants



Department of Psychology

University of Canterbury Private Bag 4800
Christchurch New Zealand
Telephone: 03-366 7001
Fax: 03-364 2181

Dear Parent

The reason for this project is to study the development of children's emotions and emotional language. To do this, we will need to get information on your family background, and your feelings and beliefs about parenting as well as observing your interaction with your child.

What we are asking you to do is to answer some background questions during a visit by the researcher to you and your child in your own home; and to fill in some questionnaires later in your own time. Also, we will ask you to tape a conversation at home with your child about past experiences; and to come to the university to have a video made of you helping your child in a blockbuilding task.

Altogether we need about one and three-quarter hours of your time this year. This includes the quarter of an hour interview in your own home, and about half an hour for you to fill in questionnaires later in your own time. Taping your child's conversation will take about half an hour at home, and the video of the blockbuilding task with your child will take about half an hour at the University. We will contact you in nine to twelve months to repeat these tasks again.

All information will be kept completely confidential. We do this by using a coding system.

We know that taking part in a research project like this takes time and effort, and we are very grateful to parents. We would really like to pay every one who takes part in it, but this is out of the question. But we have been able to organise a raffle where everyone will have a chance to win three cash prizes.

Although there will be no other direct benefit to you, the information from this project will be used to help parents, psychologists, teachers, etc., to assist in children's emotional development.

The research team for this project consists of Mrs. Jean Hammond, M.Sc., Psychology Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 8081 [home 3556-635 after 4pm]; Dr. Rob Hughes, Reader in the Psychology Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 6879; and Dr. Karyn France, Lecturer in the Education Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 6610. Please feel free to contact any of the above if you have any queries.

If you have a child aged between two years and four years of age, and are willing to take part in this research, please ring Jean Hammond at either of the above numbers.

Yours sincerely

APPENDIX Q

Letter:

Consent to be Signed by Participants

(two pages)

**Department of Psychology****University of Canterbury**

Private Bag 4800
Christchurch New Zealand
Telephone: 03-366 7001
Fax: 03-364 2181

Dear Parent

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The research team for this project consists of Mrs. Jean Hammond, M.Sc., Psychology Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 8081; Dr. Rob Hughes, Reader in the Psychology Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 6879; and Dr. Karyn France, Lecturer in the Education Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 6610. Please feel free to contact any of the above if you have any queries.

Yours sincerely

(Mrs. Jean Hammond)

I agree to participate in the project described above, on the understanding that if at any time I wish to withdraw from the experiment I may, without prejudice, do so. All information collected will be confidential as will the identity of participants.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

Jean Hammond

Signature:

Date:

APPENDIX R

Letter:

Notifying Raffle Results and giving Date for Time Two


Department of Psychology

University of Canterbury Private Bag 4800
Christchurch New Zealand
Telephone: 03-366 7001
Fax: 03-364 2181

Dear

re CHILDREN'S EMOTION RESEARCH - UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Thank you very much for taking part in the above study. It is through the participation of people like yourself and your child that knowledge may be gained about the development of children's emotional behaviour and emotional language.

The raffle organized for the participants in the main study has been drawn, and the three lucky mothers have been given their cash prizes.

The follow-up study will commence in March 1996 so we will contact you about
If your address and/or phone number have already changed, or will change in the future, could you please let us know.

We know that taking part in a research project like this takes time and effort, so we are very grateful to everyone who takes part in it. Also, we have another cash prize raffle for the follow-up study!

The research team for this project consists of Mrs. Jean Hammond, M.Sc., Psychology Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 8081 [home 355-6635 after 4pm]; Dr. Rob Hughes, Reader in the Psychology Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 6879; and Dr. Karyn France, Lecturer in the Education Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 6610. Please feel free to contact any of above if you have any queries.

Yours sincerely

Jean Hammond

APPENDIX S

Letter:

Notifying Raffle Results and giving Date for Research Report



Department of Psychology

University of Canterbury

Private Bag 4800
Christchurch New Zealand
Telephone: 03-366 7001
Fax: 03-364 2181

Dear

re CHILDREN'S EMOTION RESEARCH - UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Thank you very much for taking part in the above study. It is through the participation of people like yourself that knowledge may be gained about the development of children's emotional behaviour and emotional language. Please tell that Jean is most grateful for her/his role in the research - this could not have been done without the children!

The raffle organized for the participants in the main study has been drawn, and the three lucky mothers have received their cash prizes.

We know that taking part in a research project like this takes time and effort, so we are very grateful to everyone who takes part in it.

A brief note of the findings of this research will be sent to you in approximately twelve months time. If your address changes during this time, could you please notify us of your new address.

The research team for this project consists of Mrs. Jean Hammond, M.Sc., Psychology Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 8081 [home 355-6635 after 4pm]; Dr. Rob Hughes, Reader in the Psychology Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 6879; and Dr. Karyn France, Lecturer in the Education Department, Phone 3667-001, Ext. 6610. Please feel free to contact any of above if you have any queries.

Yours sincerely

Jean Hammond